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CONTENTS

	Page
The Chief State School Officer	2
Life Adjustment Education for Youth	3
International Conference on Public Education	7
With the U. S. Office of Education	9
Letter from the President of the United States	10
Elementary Science—Every Day in Every Way	11
Library Services	15
Good Posture for Boys and Girls	16
What the Community Expects of Its Teachers	18
Are Schools Returning to the People?	20
Tribute to Teachers	21
School Population of the Future	22
UNESCO and United Nations	27
Acts of Eighteenth Congress	28
U. S. Government Announces	31

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School Life

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Purpose

The Congress of the United States established the United States Office of Education in 1867 to "collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories;" to "diffuse such information as shall aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems;" and to "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." SCHOOL LIFE serves toward carrying out these purposes. Its printing is approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget.

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The Chief State School Officer

by E. B. Norton, Deputy Commissioner of Education

PROBABLY NO SCHOOL OFFICIAL holds a position of more strategic importance than does the chief State school officer. He is known by various titles such as State Superintendent of Education, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Commissioner of Education.

By constitution in 33 States, and by law in the remaining 15, he has been designated as the executive head of the State public school system. Ordinarily he serves as the executive officer of the State Board of Education. However, there are 9 States that have no State Board of Education, and in such cases the functions and duties usually vested in such a board are exercised by the chief State school officer.

This important school official is responsible for long-range planning and for professional leadership in educational matters within his State. He has legal, official, and professional responsibility for recommending a State program of education and for advising the Governor and the legislature concerning the establishment and maintenance of the State system of public schools and the setting of minimum standards for the various local school systems.

Throughout the Nation education is recognized as a function and responsibility of the State. City and county boards of education, local school superintendents, and other local school administrative officers derive their powers and their legal educational responsibilities from State laws. Local school systems are usually considered as subdivisions of State governments. Local autonomy and administrative control of education are preserved through State law and are exercised under broad policies which encourage local initiative in conformity with recognized State patterns.

High Quality of Leadership Needed

The chief State school officer exercises his responsibilities through a professional staff usually known as the State Department of Education which, as a legally established agency of official State government, is under his general direction. The State Department of Education should provide broad professional leadership and expert technical consultative services not otherwise readily available through local school administrative units. Probably no official or professional agency is comparable to the State Department of Education in potential influence for the advancement of education along sound lines. Poorer and less favored school communities, while retaining local control of their schools have a right to look to this official State educational agency for a high quality of leadership beyond their local power to provide. They must also look to the State Department of Education for the establishment and execution of sound policies for the equitable distribution of State funds to provide more nearly equalized educational opportunities throughout the State.

Recent years have brought a definite and rapid trend toward the assumption by the State of increasingly larger portions of the financial support of schools, and toward State-wide systems that promote equalization by providing greater assistance to local units having large enrollments and little taxable wealth. In 1944, 20 States provided from State sources over 40 percent of the revenue for public schools in those States, 11 States provided more than 60 percent of school revenues. In that year half of the States provided more

(Turn to page 10)

Life Adjustment Education For Youth

Commission to Develop Program for Universal Secondary Education

by Roosevelt Basler,[1] Superintendent, Millburn Township Public Schools, Millburn, N J.

DURING the past two decades thoughtful educators have become increasingly concerned about the apparent failure of the secondary school to provide educational experiences sufficiently diverse to meet the needs of all youth of high-school age. As more members of this age group have sought to avail themselves of a high-school education, the inappropriateness of much of our time-honored offerings for meeting the needs of a large proportion of these youth becomes ever more evident. The preparation of *Education for All American Youth*,[2] *Planning for American Youth*,[3] and other similar documents produced by national organizations which speak with authority in the field of professional education represent efforts (1) to call attention to the fact that *all* youth deserve educational opportunities suited to their individual needs, and (2) to suggest possible ways of providing such opportunities.

Although much has been written and said about this persisting problem, the number of workable solutions in practical operation have remained pitifully few. It was with great eagerness, therefore, that the U. S. Office of Education entered into the work of stimulating the consideration and implementation of the Prosser Resolution as a means of aiding the schools of the Nation to move more rapidly toward the provision of appropriate educational opportunities for those youth of secondary school age whose interests and abilities are such that they are neither candidates for college and the professions nor for training in the skilled oc-

[1] Dr. Basler was Chief of Instructional Problems, Secondary Education Division, U. S. Office of Education, until July when he resigned to accept his present position. (*See* October 1947, SCHOOL LIFE, p. 8.)

[2] National Education Association of the United States. Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C., The Association, 1944.

[3] National Association of Secondary-School Principals. *Planning for American Youth*. Washington, D. C., The Association, 1944.

cupations. Five regional conferences and a national conference have been held thus far, the latter resulting in the establishment of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth.

Nature and Origin of the Prosser Resolution

The Vocational Division of the U. S. Office of Education, in January 1944, undertook a study of *Vocational Education in the Years Ahead*. This study covered a period of 1½ years. There was a working committee of 10 persons; this was supplemented by a reviewing committee and a consulting committee. More than 150 persons participated in the study.

On May 31 and June 1, 1945, a final conference was held in Washington, D. C. At that meeting many problems were presented relating to a life-adjustment program for that major group of youth of secondary school age not being appropriately served by preparation for college or by training for a specific vocation. According to J. C. Wright, at that time Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education and Chairman of the Conference on Vocational Education in the Years Ahead, few solutions to the grave and persisting problems were offered by the group assembled.[4]

Near the close of that meeting the chairman asked Dr. Charles A. Prosser to summarize the conference. As a part of his summarization Dr. Prosser presented what has now become a historic resolution. It was unanimously adopted by the delegates. It read as follows:

> It is the belief of this conference that, with the aid of this report in final form, the vocational school of a community will be able better to prepare 20 percent of its youth of secondary school age for entrance upon desirable skilled occupations; and that the high school will continue to prepare 20 percent of its students for entrance to college. We do not believe that the remaining 60 percent of our youth of secondary school age will receive the life-adjustment training they need and to which they are entitled as American citizens—unless and until the administrators of public education with the assistance of the vocational education leaders formulate a similar program for this group.
>
> We therefore request the U. S. Commissioner of Education and the Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education to call at some early date a conference or a series of regional conferences between an equal number of representatives of general and of vocational education—to consider this problem and to take such initial steps as may be found advisable for its solution.

After receiving the Resolution the U. S. Commissioner of Education waited until the Director of the new Division of Secondary Education in the Office of Education had been appointed and then asked him to plan, in cooperation with the Division of Vocational Education, a series of conferences to consider the meaning and implications of the resolution and to consider possible means by which solutions to the problems which prompted it could be devised.

Five Regional Conferences

From the beginning, the several activities which ensued have been joint undertakings of the Division of Secondary Education and the Division of Vocational Education. An Office of Education committee composed of representatives from both divisions prepared the agenda and made other plans for the five regional conferences.[5] The first, a pilot conference, was held in April 1946, in New York City; the second in Chicago the following June; the third in Cheyenne in September of the same year; the fourth a week later in Sacramento; and the fifth and final regional conference was held in Birmingham in November 1946.

The membership of each of these conferences was composed of leaders from the fields of vocational education and of general secondary education; there were approximately 25 participants in each conference; they included principals of secondary schools, State directors and supervisors of vocational education, other staff members of State departments of education, superintendents of school systems, administrators and professors from institutions which prepare teachers, directors of curriculum and instruction, directors and research specialists in pupil personnel services, and officers of national organizations in these several areas. They came from every geographical region, including [illegible] States and the District of Columbia.

The work of the regional conferences consisted primarily of exploratory discussions of the problems inherent in the resolution, and of possible ways of reaching solutions to them. Some time was spent in considering the nature of the youth with whom the resolution was concerned; the characteristics they have in common, if any; and the means by which they can be identified. In addition, attention was devoted to the questions of what would constitute a suitable program of education for various types of youth and how the changes in schools and school systems which are indicated thereby can be accomplished. Careful reports on the deliberations of each of these conferences were prepared for distribution to the conferees and other interested persons and organizations.

The regional conferences overwhelmingly validated the existence and importance of the problem referred to in the Resolution. Each conference recommended that the U. S. Office of Education sponsor a *national* conference to develop a plan of action aimed at a concerted and continuing attack on this problem. Such a National Conference on the Prosser Resolution was therefore held May 8–10, 1947.

The regional conferences had served their purposes well. It was the ground work laid at these conferences which made possible the considerable accomplishments of the National Conference. Incidentally, they proved, beyond all question, that those who have been primarily engaged in *vocational* education and those whose work has been largely in the field of *general* secondary education can work together in harmony and can make outstandingly significant contributions by joint endeavor.

Plans and Materials for the National Conference

The Office of Education Committee in charge of arrangements for the National Conference held frequent sessions for the purposes of making careful and detailed plans and for the preparation of pertinent materials needed in connection therewith. The policy of placing these materials in the hands of participants well ahead of the conference dates was followed. Reactions to th[illegible]

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[4] From an address by J. C. Wright before the American Vocational Education Association at its Fortieth Annual Convention, St. Louis, Mo., Dec. 6, 1946.

[5] *Birmingham Conference.* SCHOOL LIFE, 29 : 29, February 1947. *Secondary School Life Adjustment Training for Sixty Percent of Our Youth.* SCHOOL LIFE, 28 : 6, July 1946.

ments of certain materials were solicited and used in further planning. The following materials were distributed to those persons who had accepted the Commissioner's invitation to participate in the National Conference:

1. *An Interpretation of the Prosser Resolution.*—On March 3, 1947, a 5-page statement was sent out. It had been prepared in collaboration with Dr. Prosser with a view to rewording and explaining certain portions of the Resolution, and to avoid misinterpretation and misunderstanding. The first paragraph of the revised resolution read as follows:

> It is the belief of this conference that, with the aid of this report in final form, schools will be able better to prepare for entrance upon desirable skilled occupations those youth who by interest and aptitude can profit from such training. We believe that the high school will continue to improve its offerings for those youth who are preparing to enter college. In the United States the people have adopted the ideal of secondary education for all youth. As this ideal is approached, the high school is called upon to serve an increasing number of youth for whom college preparation or training for skilled occupations is neither feasible nor appropriate. The practical problems connected with the provision of a suitable educational program for this increasing number are so great, and the schools to date have had comparatively so little experience in this enterprise, that the problem merits cooperative study and action by leaders in all aspects of secondary education. We believe that secondary school administrators and teachers and vocational education leaders should work together to the end that the number of attempts being made in secondary schools to meet this need will be greatly increased and to the end that the pronouncements made in recent years by various educational groups which are suggestive of needed curriculum patterns will receive increased study and implementation.

2. *A Tentative Statement Concerning the Meaning and Implications of the Prosser Resolution.*—On April 3, 1947, a 51-page document was released. This document represented a synthesis of points on which there was general agreement at the regional conferences and of statements bearing on this problem which had appeared in recent pronouncements prepared by recognized national educational commissions and associations.

3. *Agenda for the National Conference on the Prosser Resolution.*—On April 25, 1947, an agenda went to prospective conferees, which outlined: (1) the chief purposes of the National Conference; (2) the schedule of meetings for the 3-day session; (3) the manner in which the conference was to be organized; and (4) the assignments to be handled by each of the working committees and subcommittees.

4. *Personnel of the National Conference on the Prosser Resolution.*—Also on April 25, 1947, a complete roster of conference personnel was sent out. This proposed the memberships of committees and suggested the respective assignments of committee chairmen, associate chairmen, secretaries, consultants, and Office of Education representatives.

Principal Purpose of the National Conference on the Prosser Resolution

Throughout all its planning sessions, and in connection with the preparation of all the materials described in the foregoing section, the committee in charge of arrangements was guided by the fact that the developments to that date revealed that there was one inevitable and compelling purpose to be achieved by the National Conference, namely, *to devise an effective plan of action for developing a program of universal secondary education.*

The five regional conferences had validated the existence and importance of the problem referred to in the resolution. Certain clarifying interpretations had been developed by the committee in collaboration with Dr. Prosser. A group of specialists in the Office of Education had studied the findings of the regional conferences and the pertinent pronouncements of national educational organizations, and had prepared therefrom a statement concerning the meaning and implications of the Prosser Resolution on which general agreement at the National Conference was expected. As the many implications of the resolution were gradually uncovered and followed to their conclusions, both the importance and difficulty of the task of bringing about the many essential changes and improvements in the policies, the organization, and the offerings of the secondary schools became increasingly apparent. It was in the light of these facts that it was deemed appropriate to set the following task for the National Conference:

Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth

The Commissioner of Education announces as follows the appointment of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth which is composed of representatives from national organizations in the field of professional education:

American Association of Junior Colleges; CHARLES S. WILKINS, *President, State Agricultural and Mechanical College, Magnolia, Ark.*

American Association of School Administrators: BENJAMIN H. WILLIS, *Superintendent of Schools, Yonkers, N. Y.*

American Vocational Association: J. C. WRIGHT, *Washington, D. C.*

National Association of High-School Supervisors and Directors of Secondary Education: PAUL D. COLLIER, *Director, Bureau of Youth Services, State Department of Education, Hartford, Conn.*

National Association of Secondary-School Principals: FRANCES L. BACON, *Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Ill.*

National Association of State Directors for Vocational Education: M. D. MOBLEY, *Director, Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education, Atlanta, Ga.*

National Catholic Welfare Conference: Rev. BERNARDINE MYERS, President, *Secondary-School Department, National Catholic Educational Association, Care of Fenwick High School, Oak Park, Ill.*

National Council of Chief State School Officers: DEAN M. SCHWEICKHARD, *Commissioner of Education, St. Paul, Minn.*

National Education Association: MARCELLA LAWLER, *State Department of Education, Olympia, Washinggton.*

TO PREPARE A PLAN for Organizing, Financing, and Administering a Three-Phase Action Program on the Prosser Resolution:

- A. Aimed at creating a wide understanding of the problem and its implications:
  1. On the part of the general public.
  2. On the part of all school people.
- B. Aimed at stimulating in States and selected communities programs or aspects of programs which will be suggestive to other States and other schools.
- C. Aimed at the initiation, operation, and continued development of such education services in every community.

THE PLAN for organizing, financing, and administering such an action program must take into account that all three of its phases are interrelated and will need to be carried forward concurrently and continuously. THE PLAN will need to provide for action at national, regional, State, and local levels.[6]

National Conference at Work

The personnel of the National Conference resembled that of the several regional conferences in that it represented national leadership in the various aspects of *vocational* education and *general* secondary education. Their interest in the purposes and significance of this conference is attested, in a measure at least, by the fact that those attending came without financial reimbursement by the Office of Education, some of them crossing the continent and paying fares and other costs of travel out of their own pockets.

The two general sessions on the opening day provided opportunity for the conferees to hear Dr. Charles A. Prosser, father of the resolution, and also provided for a "briefing session" at which the cochairmen solicited comments and answered questions regarding committee activities and procedures. The conference then divided into working committees with a view to achieving definite, stated, attainable purposes as described in the Agenda.

Results of the National Conference

After the committees had been in various sessions, a general session was held at which preliminary committee reports were heard and discussed. This device made it possible for committees to refine their recommendations so that the conference was able to take action on the completed reports at the final session with a minimum of revision.[7]

One committee was assigned the task of reviewing the document which was prepared prior to the conference bearing the title, *A Tentative Statement Concerning the Meaning and Implications of the Prosser Resolution*, and of suggesting revisions thereof to the end that it would serve as the conference platform on which an effective plan of action for developing a program of universal secondary education might rest. The revised document which was the result of this committee's labor is being edited; it will soon be available. The document will be helpful to those desiring a comprehensive statement of the problems, as well as to those wishing to effect curriculum and other changes directed toward finding possible solutions to them.

Another committee of the National Conference outlined proposals for the establishment and administration of a continuing organization to direct and promote an action program on a national scale. Acting on the proposals submitted by this committee the Conference unanimously recommended:

That there be established a National Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth.

That this Commission be composed of one representative from each of a number of national educational organizations which by their nature are concerned with this problem.

That the U. S. Commissioner of Education notify the organizations concerned of the action taken at the National Conference and request them to submit nominations for the personnel of the Commission at the earliest possible moment.

That the U. S. Commissioner of Education proceed with the establishment of the Commission by making appointments from these nominations; and that he convene the Commission and preside until a permanent chairman is elected.

That full-time personnel operating under the direction of the Commission be provided from several sources including (1) U. S. Office of Education, (2) foundational grants, (3) State Departments of Education, (4) graduate colleges of education, and (5) others.

That revenue for the operation of the Commission's program be secured from these sources and that grants-in-aid from the Federal Government through enabling legislation be sought in subsequent years.

That a continuing program of activities be undertaken by the Commission for the purpose of assisting teacher-training institutions, State Departments of Education, and local school systems to achieve the ideal of universal secondary education.

A third committee undertook the responsibility of suggesting the types of activities which need to be prompted and directed by the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth if schools of the Nation are to move more rapidly than they otherwise would toward realization of the objectives of the resolution. Included in the programs of action outlined are: (1) research studies, (2) conduct of workshops and conferences, (3) conduct of experimental programs in pilot schools, (4) demonstration, (5) publications, (6) related activities.

Conclusion

The U. S. Commissioner of Education has sought nominations from organizations, and appointments are now being made. An organization meeting of the Commission will be held soon after its personnel is complete. To date the organizations invited to nominate Commission members are: American Association of Junior Colleges; American Association of School Administrators; American Vocational Association; National Association of (State) High-School Supervisors and Directors of Secondary Education; National Association of Secondary-School Principals; National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education; National Catholic Welfare Conference, Department of Education; National Council of Chief State School Officers; and National Education Association.

School people will watch with great interest the work of this Commission during the next few years. If its work is to be successful, the participation and support of State departments of education, teacher-training institutions, educational organizations of all types, local schools and school districts, and the people served by these schools must be secured. On behalf of this new Commission, whose work can mark an epoch in the progress of secondary education in the United States, the U. S. Office of Education therefore solicits the interest, the support, and the participation of all groups concerned. This is a great enterprise—an enterprise which has as its ultimate objective the realization of one American ideal: a high school accessible and available to *all*, with a program of educational experiences suited to the needs, interests, and abilities of each individual youth of high-school age no matter what may be his social and economic background, his scholastic aptitude, or his occupational future.

[6] *Agenda for the National Conference on the Prosser Resolution*, p. 3.

[7] For brief report see: *National Conference Develops Plans for Implementing Universal Secondary Education.* SCHOOL LIFE, 29 : 18, July 1947; for complete report *see: Report of National Conference on Prosser Resolution, Chicago, May 8, 9, 10, 1947.* mimeo.

International Conference on Public Education

by Galen Jones, Director, Division of Secondary Education

The United States Government received an invitation from the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization and the International Bureau of Education to send a delegation of from one to three members to the Tenth International Conference on Public Education, meeting in Geneva, Switzerland, July 14–19, 1947. The U. S. Department of State asked the U. S. Commissioner of Education to nominate the delegates. Dr. Howard E. Wilson, Assistant Director of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, and Dr. Galen Jones, Director, Division of Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education, were selected and the latter was designated as chairman of the U. S. Delegation.

THE AGENDA of the Tenth International Conference on Public Education was prepared by a joint committee of UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education. It included four items of major importance, namely: (1) Concise reports from the Ministries of Education on educational movements during the school year 1946–47, (2) Gratuity of School Supplies, (3) Physical Education in Secondary Schools, and (4) A Teachers' Charter. The International Bureau of Education had conducted preconference studies on the free provision of school supplies and physical education in secondary schools which supplied needed background information for the development of Draft Recommendations by the Conference relative to items 2 and 3 on the Agenda. These were published in French and available to the delegates under the titles: *La Gratuité Du Matériel Scolaire* and *L'Education Physique Dans L'Enseignement Secondaire.* UNESCO had requested the inclusion of the fourth item on the Agenda dealing with the desirability of developing a world charter for teachers.

Forty-two countries were represented at the Conference by 73 delegates. The number of observers, including representatives of the press, varied from 6 to 80 at various times. One official observer was present for the United Nations; UNESCO was officially represented by 3 persons; and 1 official observer each represented the International Labour Office and the World Health Organization. The number of delegates varied from 1 each for 20 countries up to 5 in the case of Switzerland; usually there were 2 per country. The following countries were represented: Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Ecuador, Egypt, Dominican Republic, France, Greece, Guatemala, Holland, Hungary, India, Iraq, Iran, Italy, Luxemburg, Mexico, Norway, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Salvador, Siam, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria, Turkey, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, United States of America, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia.

The Conference was opened by Dr. Albert Picot, who is President of the Council of State of the Canton of Geneva. He is also Chief of the Department of Public Instruction in that Canton, and served as the principal Swiss delegate to the Conference. Following Dr. Picot's remarks, the Conference organized and elected by acclamation a chairman and three vice chairmen as follows: Chairman, Dr. Ronald Walker, Australian delegate; first vice chairman, Dr. Marcel Abraham, French delegate; second vice chairman, Mme. (Dr.) Z. Kormanowa, Polish delegate; and third vice chairman, Dr. Pedro Calmon, Brazilian delegate.

The chairman, following his own remarks, introduced M. Jean Thomas, Assistant Director-General of UNESCO. Both Dr. Thomas and Dr. Jean Piaget, Director of the International Bureau of Education, who followed him, addressed themselves to the new working relationship between UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education, in effect since February 1947. M. Thomas cited the official agreement, which had been ratified by the General Conference of UNESCO and by the Council of the Bureau, as a tribute to the services rendered by the Bureau to the cause of education. He praised the frequent and cordial collaboration, the interchange of information, documentation, and staff which had resulted from the agreement and expressed the hope that the collaboration between UNESCO and the I. B. E. would become even closer.

In responding, M. Piaget voiced his pleasure over the innovation of the official agreement and the fact that the Conference had been summoned jointly by UNESCO and the I. B. E.

Reports Presented

The majority of the countries represented submitted *Reports on Educational Movements During the School Year 1946–47.* Trends indicated by the various reports have more similarity than difference. Only the major ones can be summarized here.

In all countries there is a steadily growing conviction that equality of opportunity in education is not only an ideal, but also must be realized as rapidly as economic conditions will permit.

The principle of compulsory education has been adopted in virtually all countries. There are marked differences in the enforcement of the principle, however, due to wide divergencies in financial ability as well as to the traditions of the peoples.

Wide interest was manifest in the comprehensive or multilateral secondary school. The desirability of bringing together students from all walks of life is a broadening, democratizing factor of tremendous influence, according to the majority of the delegates.

With the raising of the school leaving age to 15 (18 as the ultimate goal in many countries), there is interest in reorganizing secondary education so that the choice of curriculum or secondary school can be deferred until the pupil is age 13 or 14 or later.

Programs of pupil orientation and guidance are receiving, therefore, increased attention in all countries.

All reports emphasized enlarged efforts in adult education designed not

only to make noteworthy inroads upon illiteracy, but also to raise the level of living by means of reduction in the amount of disease, poverty, and misgovernment.

The shortage of teachers, the social and economic status of teachers, and the revision of programs of teacher education were reported as problems of central importance in every country.

An increasing number of countries are employing commissions made up of laymen and educational experts in the study of their most pressing educational problems.

The desirable outcome to be achieved from an expansion in student and teacher exchanges are recognized by all countries.

There is an increasing awareness of the importance of education to national welfare and international understanding.

Gratuity of School Supplies

The second concern of the Conference was the free provision of school supplies. The International Bureau only recently had published its study based upon data secured from 41 countries and entitled *La Gratuité Du Matériel Scolaire.* The discussion which followed the presentation of the rapporteur, M. Louis Verniers, Belgium delegate, was centered upon Draft Recommendation No. 21 to the Ministries of Education concerning the Free Provision of School Supplies. Five of the ten points included in Recommendation No. 21 are submitted as representative:

The Conference—

Believes on the one hand, that the principle of the free provision of school supplies ought to be considered as the natural and necessary corollary of compulsory schooling, and on the other hand that the application of this principle to young people attending noncompulsory types of education, should be considered as the human ideal towards which one ought to aim.

Believes in consequence, that an indispensable minimum requirement is the free provision of all school supplies required for compulsory education, it being understood that these supplies include both the teaching material for collective use and supplies for individual use.

Expresses the desire that adequate financial provision should be made for school libraries and that furthermore the possibility of international publication of books for school work such as atlases of blank maps, collections illustrating physical and political geography, the history of art, development of applied science, of the customs, habits and dress of the nations of the world, should be seriously considered.

Considers furthermore that means of transport should be provided free for pupils living at a considerable distance from the school which they are obliged to attend.

Expresses the desire that an international agreement should be made with a view to increasing the number of educational films and other audio-visual material and of facilitating both their purchase and free circulation beyond national boundaries, so that the net cost may be reduced.

Physical Education

The third item considered by the Conference was that of Physical Education in Secondary Schools. Responses obtained from 39 countries by the I. B. E. were presented in their publication entitled *L'Education Physique Dans L'Enseignement Secondaire.* The discussion which followed the report of the rapporteur, Dr. Joseph Vana, Czechoslovakian delegate, centered on several points such as the question of special courses for pupils exempted from regular physical education; of interschool and international sports competitions as a means of reconciliation and of understanding between individuals and between peoples; of the organization of the medical supervision of physical education; of the establishment of accident insurance for pupils and teachers; and of the situation of physical education instructors in relation to that of their colleagues.

The discussions were pointed toward Draft Recommendation No. 22 to the Ministries of Education concerning Physical Education in Secondary Schools. Adopted at the closing session of the Conference, these agreements were not available for use in this article.[1] In general they deal with the desirability of compulsory physical education in the secondary school, the importance of reserving sufficient time for physical education in the weekly time-table, the necessity for medical examinations for all pupils participating, the provision of special remedial treatment based on medical advice for all exempted pupils, the encouragement of sports competitions under the best conditions, and the desirable professional competence and status of the teachers of physical education.

[1] Will be discussed in a later issue.

A World Charter for Educators

Placed upon the Agenda at the request of UNESCO, *A World Charter for Educators* was debated at one of the sessions. Dr. Wilson put forth a point of view which became the consensus of the Conference. Only the briefest of summaries is possible in this report.

The development of *A World Charter for Educators* must be deliberate, requiring a number of years in the process. This is made necessary by the importance of many consultations among numerous voluntary professional organizations of teachers throughout the world, by the desirability of its study and discussion in institutes and centers of teacher education in all countries as well as in international conventions and workshops. Secondly, the Charter, when developed, should recognize clearly the teacher's relation to his State, with particular stress upon the fact that education is intimately related to community life—a relationship which must be strengthened, never weakened. Consequently the Charter should grow from national groups to the world level. The third general agreement was that the Charter should contain an emphasis on the responsibilities as well as the rights of teachers. In the fourth place it was held that education should be broadly conceived to include such personnel as librarians, educational script writers and radio producers, and creators of educational films. Finally, it was agreed that when developed *A World Charter for Educators* should be acclaimed as a preeminent contribution to literature.

Many countries are looking to the United States for stimulus and counsel in the development of their educational programs. The members of the U. S. Delegation are in full agreement upon the desirability of responding freely to all requests for information and believe that the United States should be represented at future conferences on Public Education which may be sponsored by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education.

WITH THE U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION

VOCATIONAL DIVISION ASSIGNMENTS

Ward P. Beard and *James R. Coxen*, both veterans in the Vocational Education Division, have been named assistant directors of the Division, in charge of State Plans Operations and Program Planning Operations, respectively. The appointments were recently announced by R. W. Gregory, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education.

Other assignments, announced at the same time, are: Jerry R. Hawke, executive assistant to the director of the Division; Walter H. Cooper, chief, Trade and Industrial Education; Tom Watson, assistant chief, Trade and Industrial Education; Dudley M. Clements, assistant chief, Agricultural Education; Rua Van Horn, specialist, Program Planning, Home Economics Education.

RECENT APPOINTMENTS

Nolan D. Pulliam joined the Division of School Administration in mid-September as specialist for State school administration. Dr. Pulliam was State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Arizona since January 1947, and assistant State Superintendent for a year prior to that time.

From 1938 to 1942, Dr. Pulliam was executive secretary of the Arizona Education Association. Then he served as a base commander, rank of major, in the Army Air Forces from 1942 to 1945. Earlier, he was superintendent, 1929 to 1938, of Madison School District in Phoenix, Ariz.

Dr. Pulliam received his A. B. degree from Central College, Fayette, Mo., in 1925; his M. A. in educational administration from Stanford University in 1932; and his doctorate in education at Stanford in 1946.

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Ellsworth Tompkins recently assumed his duties as specialist in large high schools, in the Secondary Education Division. Mr. Tompkins came to the Office from Eastside High School, Paterson, N. J., where he had served as principal since 1941.

In addition to many years in high-school administration, Mr. Tompkins for more than 2 decades has worked in various aspects of radio program production. He has conducted courses in speech and radio at Dickinson Junior College, Rutherford, N. J., and has served as commentator, consultant, and program director at various times for stations in the New York area. He was also in charge of the workshop in secondary school curriculum reconstruction for the past 2 years at State Teachers College, Montclair, N. J.

Mr. Tompkins received his bachelor's degree at Princeton University in 1924 and his master's in education at Harvard in 1942. He has done additional graduate work at Harvard and at New York University.

☆ ☆ ☆

Jane Franseth, of the University of Georgia, came to the Office in October, to become specialist for rural schools in the Elementary Education Division.

During the past academic year, Miss Franseth was on leave from Georgia on a Rosenwald Scholarship studying child growth and development at the University of Chicago. In March 1947, she was elected president of the Rural Department of the National Education Association. In 1944, she was a member of the White House Conference on Rural Education.

As associate professor of education at the University of Georgia since 1943, Miss Franseth directed the preservice education of rural school supervisors in Georgia, a combination of class study and field practice. Prior to that time, she was supervisor of schools in two Georgia counties, and for 7 years was assistant director of supervisory training at Georgia Teachers College, Statesboro, Ga.

Miss Franseth received her bachelor's degree from Western Michigan College in 1930, her master's from the University of Michigan in 1936, and has done additional advanced study at Columbia University.

☆ ☆ ☆

John H. Lloyd recently returned to the Office of Education as assistant chief, Information and Publications Service in the Division of Central Services. Mr. Lloyd has served 5 years in the Navy Department in Washington, D. C. His most recent position was head, in a civilian capacity, of the Publications Management Branch, Scientific Information Division, Office of Naval Research. Previously, he had been head of the Publications Branch of the Office of Research and Inventions, with rank of commander.

Before entering the Navy in 1942, Mr. Lloyd was assistant to the director of information in the Office of Education and was responsible for the NBC network program, *Education in the News*, sponsored by the Office. He had been a member of the editorial staff in earlier years, having first come to the Office of Education in 1930. Mr. Lloyd received his bachelor's degree in public administration from American University.

☆ ☆ ☆

Helen Manley, specialist in health and physical education, resigned after a year's service with the Office, to return to the University City Public Schools, University City, Mo., where she served as director of health and physical education for many years. Four articles by Miss Manley which appeared in recent issues of SCHOOL LIFE have been reprinted with the title *Health Education for the Elementary School.* (The reprint is available upon request).

REPRINTED IN JAPANESE

Four articles on science teaching in elementary schools, by Glenn O. Blough, are being translated into Japanese. The articles originally appeared in SCHOOL LIFE between July 1946 and April 1947, and were later issued together as a reprint. Mr. Blough is specialist in science and aviation in the Elementary Education Division. The articles are being published in *Science and Education*, a Japanese quarterly for science teachers.

THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON NOVEMBER 1, 1947

TO THE PATRONS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS

"The Schools Are Yours," the theme selected for the twenty-seventh observance of American Education Week, is a proud reminder that our forefathers saw that our schools would help children develop their potentialities for democratic living. To this end, they established free schools for a free people.

I would point out that the creative ideals of democracy must be taught in order to be learned. The vitality of our republic depends on the effectiveness of such teaching.

Today American education is in the grips of a grave crisis. Our schools are compelled to offer education of inferior quality. Educationally, many millions of our children are underprivileged.

We must act to correct conditions which sap our national strength and waste our human resources. We must prepare our young people to understand and preserve their priceless inheritance of freedom. We must give them the proper climate for developing intellectual competence and personal responsibility.

I therefore urge all Americans to rededicate themselves to the program of providing their children with a sound education. American Education Week, beginning November ninth, offers citizens the opportunity to meet together in the schools, to become acquainted with school needs. In so doing, they will take counsel in the very citadels of democracy.

Harry Truman

RADIO INDUSTRY SUPPORTS EDUCATION WEEK

More than 75 radio network programs will carry messages in support of the "Crisis in Education" information program during American Education Week, November 9–15. This has been assured by the Advertising Council working in cooperation with the U. S. Office of Education and the Citizens Federal Committee on Education.

The Citizens Federal Committee, an advisory committee to the Office, several months ago made application to the Advertising Council, Inc., to create public awareness of the crisis in education. The Council is a national, nonprofit organization dedicated to public service.

It is expected that over 100,000,000 "listener impressions" will be reported during the week of November 9–15. A listener impression is defined as one listener to one program.

VOCATIONAL POLICIES BEING REVISED

Policies governing the administration of vocational education are in process of revision, according to Raymond W. Gregory, assistant commissioner for vocational education. With the completion of eight regional conferences attended by members of State boards of vocational education and by officials of the U. S. Office of Education, the work is almost completed.

The changes as finally approved will appear in a revision of Vocational Education Bulletin No. 1, *Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education.* The bulletin was last revised completely in 1937, although amending statements have appeared from time to time.

The new revision will contain policies regarding the Vocational Education Act of 1946 (George-Barden Act). This Act enlarged the scope of activities which States may undertake with Federal aid.

STATE SCHOOL OFFICER

(Concluded from page 2)

than 33 percent of public school revenues in those particular States.

Since 1944 the trend seems to be accelerating. Accurate reports for 1946–47 are not yet available, but all indications are that States, as such, have continued rather rapidly to assume relatively greater proportions of the financial responsibility for public education.

Within the past 12 months some 44 State legislatures have met, and in most instances have given serious attention to the improvement of the public school system. Most of the appreciable increases in educational appropriations quite properly have been devoted to increasing the pitiably low salaries of teachers.

The Next Forward Step

It seems reasonable to expect that a next forward step in educational advancement must be the strengthening and improvement of State Departments of Education for more dynamic professional leadership. Official State educational agencies must become more effective service agencies, providing technical resources to assist local school authorities in operating better schools under local control. Thus will local educational autonomy be preserved, local initiative be encouraged, State and local investment in education be safeguarded, objectionable centralization of controls be avoided, and better schools be assured.

Elementary Science—Every Day in Every Way

by Glenn O. Blough, Specialist for Science, Elementary Education Division

Dear Sir:

Please send me any material you have describing how to set up an elementary science program. Do you know of school systems that have been working on a program for science in the grades? If so, will you kindly tell me how they began their work and something of how they are carrying it on?

Thank you very much.

FREQUENT LETTERS like the foregoing have prompted the writing of this article to indicate how various types of schools and administrative units have launched their work in science at the elementary school level. The personnel responsible in each of the situations described would be the first to say, "Our plan is just one of many that may be used. We present it for whatever value it may have. Were we to start all over again, no doubt our attack would be quite different."

Although the situations described are different from each other, certain similar basic problems must be solved in each case. There are specific lacks to be made up: (1) Teachers are not well prepared to teach science; they lack both subject-matter background and knowledge of how to teach science. This makes them slow starters—a situation easily understood but not so easily overcome. (2) There are comparatively few well-planned programs in elementary science to use as guides. Consequently each group must do much of its own ground work. (3) The program in the elementary school is already crowded and finding room for science is a problem. (4) There is a general lack of equipment and teachers do not have the background for recognizing material that is available or for preparing home-made gadgets and devices.

The problems then consist of a lack in (1) in-service training of teachers and (2) group planning to construct a course in elementary science to fit the needs of the girls and boys. The most successful programs appear to be those that result from cooperative efforts of everyone concerned. It seems to take much longer for a ready-made program to catch on than it does one that results from cooperative planning by teacher groups. Supervisors and principals report that the best results are obtained by first surveying the needs and wants of the teachers involved, then helping teachers to proceed from this base to set up their programs.

It is possible to include only a few of the projects carrying on interesting work. There are a large number of schools and administrative units actively at work on planning and carrying out programs in elementary school science. Many State departments of education, county units, teachers college groups, university laboratory schools, city and town school systems are engaged in preparing bulletin materials and courses of study; conducting meetings; holding workshops, institutes, and conferences; and in many other ways making progress in bringing about more effective science teaching. A few of these activities described in sufficient detail to be useful to those interested in developing similar projects are given here:

Curriculum Center Schools in a Large City System

Anna Burgess, supervisor of elementary science in the Cleveland Public Schools, describes how individual schools in Cleveland were used as experimental curriculum centers in science as follows:

"In February 1928, the Cleveland, Ohio, Public School system designated several elementary schools as curriculum centers for experimentation in the different subject-matter fields. As elementary science was a new subject in the curriculum at that time, there were no teachers prepared to teach the subject. The supervisor selected good all-round teachers who were interested in any phase of natural or physical science as a faculty for the science curriculum centers. They were given free reign to discover pupil interests at different age-grade levels. The other subjects in the curriculum were to receive their due emphasis in the school, and their possibilities for correlation with science were to be explored.

"A slightly higher budget for such

centers was appropriated to provide supplies, equipment, and books for experimental use. Since the books adapted for use at the elementary level were few at that time, the teachers wrote many pupil-information sheets and work sheets. Much of this material was later included in the courses of study; some of it was, of course, discarded.

"Several methods were used to discover pupil interests and grade placement of problems and topics: (1) Pupil-interest surveys were taken three times a year; (2) teachers kept diaries of classroom happenings that seemed significant; (3) pupils' questions were listed.

"The most significant factor in the method of developing the course of study was that units were worked out with children in the classroom first and written up only after they had been tried out with several classes. Even then the units were sent out for further trial in other schools in the city. Finally, a committee revised them for the course of study.

"The school designated as a curriculum center also became an observation center. Teachers of other schools at that time had an opportunity to visit more frequently than is now practicable, so they came in great numbers. This visitation helped to spread interest in elementary science.

"During the years that the curriculum centers have been in existence, we have accomplished these things:

1. Discovered many learning situations in natural and physical science suited to the various grade levels.
2. Developed teachers of departmental elementary science (between 150 and 200 teachers have had experience in the center).
3. Worked out a mimeographed course of study in elementary science for grades 1 to 6.
4. Revised, for printing, courses for grades 4, 5, and 6.
5. Developed radio lessons in science for grades 1 to 6.
6. Experimented with supplies, equipment, and books; developed supply lists, equipment specifications, and book lists.
7. Investigated and advised purchase or development of visual aids.
8. Given countless demonstrations for teacher groups, for students in training, and for community groups.
9. Cooperated with the school gardening department to incorporate those activities in the course of study in science.
10. Discovered a wide range of interest for leisure-time activities.
11. Furnished a teacher to serve public-school classes at the Cleveland Museum of Natural History.

"Probably the one item, listed above, that succeeded best and most quickly in spreading good science teaching techniques throughout the city was the radio lessons. In these weekly broadcasts, all science teachers were able to participate in an excellent learning situation in science, which was a definite part of the course of study.

"The curriculum center school fills the same need in a school system that the experimental laboratory does in an industry. Experimentation is costly but necessary to progress, and when the experimenting can be done in one typical school, or schools, the entire system will eventually profit from the findings. It has been the experience in Cleveland, that the level of all teaching has been lifted as a result of the careful study of new methods and materials of instruction at the curriculum center schools."

An Experimental Project in New York City

Dr. Jerome Metzner, coordinator of an experimental elementary science project in New York City writes:

"Our elementary school teachers have had meager training in science and are somewhat fearful of venturing into this unknown field. Consequently, we are faced with two problems: The need for in-service training of teachers in science and the need for developing a science curriculum. There are approximately 20,000 grade teachers in New York City. To launch an elementary science program without developing teacher-readiness for it would be harmful to teacher morale and unproductive of desirable outcomes.

"In 1945, an experimental science curriculum project in two districts of the New York City schools was formulated. The purpose of the project was to devise experimental techniques for introducing and incorporating science experiences in the elementary school program. This involved two primary objectives; the organization of an in-service program of teacher training in science and the experimental development of a science curriculum.

"During the first half-year experimental techniques were developed in three district schools with certain key teachers representing each grade level. Later the project was extended to include all district schools and teachers in the two districts.

"Teachers were asked, initially, to examine their current teaching plans for science implications, to select a few implications which they could teach with confidence, and to plan the science experiences for those implications. Experiences were to be real to the child. They were not to involve any complicated or unusual apparatus. It was made evident that home and 10-cent store equipment could be used to great advantage. As the teachers planned for science experiences, certain informational and procedural needs arose. Various steps were taken to satisfy some of these needs. The coordinator met with teachers in individual and group conferences and helped them to see science implications in their current work and to provide for relevant science experiences. Where a junior high school and an elementary school were housed in the same building, or where a junior high school was located near one or more elementary schools, provision was made for regular consultation between grade teachers and a junior high school teacher."

In this connection, Dr. Metzner indicates certain uses made of the high-school facilities: (1) A list of selected teaching aids available to elementary school teachers from the high school was drawn up and distributed. (List included science apparatus and visual aids applicable to elementary school and requests for it came from the teachers through the coordinator.) (2) Workshop courses were organized at the high school to provide informational background and skills for the grade-school teachers. (3) Provisions were made for visits by elementary classes to the high school. (4) High-school Nature and Science Clubs helped to stock the elementary classroom with live plant and animal materials. (5) Some high-school students assisted elementary school teachers on field trips and similar activities.

Regarding the essential teacher-training aspect of the problem, Dr. Metzner writes, "Two in-service science

Courses were offered by the coordinator to teachers in the districts. One was organized along the following lines: At the first meeting the teacher-participants planned the areas to be covered in succeeding meetings. Separate teacher committees were formed to assume responsibility for conducting each meeting. The coordinator met with these committees and helped them to prepare for their specific sessions. Thus during one session a teacher presented briefly the essential background information of static electricity and magnetism. After this a second teacher demonstrated and explained simple experiences in these areas suitable for the primary level (kindergarten—second year). A third- and fourth-grade teacher performed similarly for the intermediate (third and fourth years) and other grade teachers did the same for upper (fifth and sixth years) levels. These presentations were followed by general discussion, evaluation, supplementation, etc. For each session, the teacher committee in charge drew up and distributed a relevant bibliography. Teachers scheduled to perform toward the end of the course had sufficient time to work out their assigned area, or part of it, with their classes. In these instances the teachers brought some of their pupils to the course to demonstrate and explain their science experiences just as they had done in their classrooms.

"The second course, offered during the following school term, helped teachers to use the science resources of the local environment — parks, zoo, botanic garden, industrial plants, etc. Emphasis was placed on the educational use of park areas where interdependencies, interrelationships, and adaptations were stressed rather than the acquisition of the names of things."

The curriculum development part of the program has progressed through cooperative efforts of all concerned. Dr. Metzner says, "It has been the experience of the teachers engaged in this project that once their initial reserve with regard to science was broken down by actually teaching science, then subsequent science teaching became increasingly easy and enjoyable. After it was observed that teacher-readiness for science was developing in promising fashion, it was then suggested that not only may science experiences be related to a unit of work but that there may be at least two other types: *Science experiences capitalizing on spontaneous child interests and lasting as long as interest is sustained.* For example, Reggy went with his father on a walk through a nearby park. There, in the woods, he found a brightly colored mushroom which he brought back to his class. Reggy related to the class during 'show-and-tell' period all about the mushroom, where he found it, how it was attached, and about the little insects and the slimy slug he found among the gills. He carried his specimen around the class and allowed the children to look at and handle it. Other children in the class volunteered information concerning mushrooms. After 20 minutes, interest in Reggy's find subsided and the class went on with its work. Reggy placed his mushroom on a dish in the class science corner and printed a label for it. *Experiences growing out of child interests and developing into a unit or subunit on science.* In another class a high and sustained interest might have been evoked by the insects and slug found on the mushroom. This might have developed into a unit dealing with some of the interrelationships and interdependencies existing between plants and animals.

Science Experiences Described

"Teachers were asked to write up the successful science experiences of their classes. These descriptions were collated, edited, and incorporated, together with other materials developed in the project, into a booklet *Science Experiences.* This was distributed to all teachers in the districts and thus permitted them to profit from the good work and thought of their colleagues.

"This booklet was the forerunner of a more complete account of science experiences resulting from the project. The new publication *Science in Everyday Living* gives further direction to teachers for integrating science into the modern pattern of elementary education.

"An invaluable aspect of this project, in the opinion of its directors, has been the mechanism established for securing widespread participation of teachers in its various aspects."

Guidance Through Preparation of a Bulletin

A committee of interested individuals in Indiana are in the process of preparing a bulletin which should prove of great help to classroom teachers of science. Dr. R. W. Lefler of Purdue University has furnished the following account of a proposal for bulletin material. Writes Dr. Lefler:

"Many a teacher of the elementary school who lives, as we all must, in this physical environment states without embarrassment that she 'can't teach science.' But there are others who have lived with understanding in this same physical world; and although they have had little organized study in science, they know the plants of the yard and garden, the stars, the cause of the seasons, the phases of the moon, and the principles underlying the functioning of simple machines. They are, and have been, observant. This attitude of observation, investigation, and formulation of conclusions they are anxious to hand down to the young people with whom they work.

"To aid this latter group and to disarm the former, this committee is working in the State of Indiana on the development of materials which will facilitate the teaching of elementary school science.

"The committee proposes to prepare a bulletin which, among other things, will:

1. List the "essential learnings" or science concepts which should be taught in the elementary school. At present, judgment regarding these concepts will have to be based on present practice and the opinions of teachers. The Cooperative Committee on Science and Mathematics Teaching of the American Association for the Advancement of Science is now preparing for a study on "What science concepts are essential in the general education program?" and on "The grade placement of these concepts." When this study is completed, we shall have much more evidence than at present regarding which concepts are deemed essential in the elementary school offering.

2. Place these "essential learnings" in the order of difficulty, with a recommendation that the concept not be taught earlier than a given grade. There will be no attempt to say that the concept should be taught at a certain grade level.

3. Associate with each concept a graded group of activities to aid the teacher in presenting the idea. Activities suitable for offering the idea at the earliest grade level

recommended will be followed by activities suitable for use where the concept is taught later to more mature boys and girls.

4. Make suggestions for offering a related science, so that hygiene or safety or physiology or physics is not taught as such, but rather that all elements related to a concept or idea and of a level understandable to the student are brought to bear on the problem.

5. Include suggestions which will aid the teacher in applying the methods of science to the solution of problems, in the hope that students may eventually come to apply the methods of critical thinking to their own problems.

6. Provide a section on how to make or obtain and use the materials associated with the teaching of elementary school science. What kind of plant can you keep alive in a schoolroom with only north windows and where the temperature on week ends goes down to 40 degrees Fahrenheit on winter days? How can you construct a woods terrarium or a bird feeder or a simple scale for weighing objects?

7. Include an annotated bibliography to aid teachers and pupils with reference problems.

8. Present a discussion on evaluation, in the hope that we may get away from the use of the written test in covering factual information as the *only* means of evaluation.

"It will not be the purpose of this teacher's guide to specify any given sequence during any given year; there will rather be encouragement for each school to chart its own way through science, taking advantage of the special training, interests, and abilities of its teaching staff, and its physical environment, equipment, and other pertinent factors. All schools will start with curious and interested children; they will chart their own way through the science sequence and, having traveled by devious routes, will have provided the experience by which the pupil can better adapt himself to his physical environment."

With the Help of a State Principals Association

Dr. Bernard W. Kinsella, chairman, Committee for the Study of the Teaching of Science, New York State Association of Elementary Principals, writes the following account of the method of work which this committee under the sponsorship of the Elementary Principals Association is carrying out. Observation in the schools of this State indicates that this association is bringing about considerable improvement in the classroom science teaching.

"An increased interest in the teaching of elementary science has been evidenced by many individual members of the New York State Association of Elementary Principals. A means of meeting this interest was brought to a focus through the appointment in the fall of 1945 of a committee of principals in the area of Rochester and Monroe County, N. Y. This committee was to study the status of the teaching of elementary science in the schools of New York State.

"Through several discussion meetings the committee arrived at the decision to set for itself a twofold task: (1) To find out the status of science teaching which includes the extent to which elementary science is being taught in New York State, and how it is being taught, and (2) The working out of means of meeting the needs as revealed in the study.

Questions Asked

"In February 1946, questionnaires were sent to the membership of the Elementary Principals Association. Among the questions asked were:

1. What course of study is being used in teaching science?
2. Is the course of study being used thought to be satisfactory?
3. What is the amount of time assigned to each grade level when science is taught as a separate subject? Principals were also asked to check the grades in which science is taught as a correlated subject.
4. Who teaches science—the grade teacher or a special teacher?
5. What are the greatest obstacles to science teaching?
6. What are the greatest factors favoring the teaching of science in the elementary school?
7. What would assist principals most in developing a good science program?

"Replies were received from over two-thirds of the principals. The responses were compiled and a mimeographed copy of the findings sent back to the principals.

"Having compiled and studied the findings, the committee sought to work out ways of meeting the needs thus revealed. The committee's work might be divided into three areas: (1) Preparation of a Science Teaching Handbook. (Some philosophy, but many practical suggestions and helps in the development of a good science program.) (2) Implementing the teaching of science in practice. This latter phase of the wo[illegible] comprises the 'trying out' or the putting into practice of the ideas to be suggested in the handbook. Each committee member is working with his teachers in his own school and in at least one neighboring school. Science programs are being worked out. Techniques are being tried. Objectives in the teaching of science are being arrived at in practice as well as in theory by faculty groups. This phase comprises the in-service training of teachers. (3) The committee has set up a working relationship with the State Teachers College at Brockport, N. Y. This cooperative work has for its chief aim the improvement of the pre-service education of teachers. Teachers need to experience, under competent instructors, the kinds of experiences which they themselves should be able to provide for their pupils. It is felt by this joint committee that both the education courses and the experiences in 'practice teaching' need to be of the kind that provide for the prospective teacher an attitude and the skills and knowledge that will enable her to achieve the most desirable learning outcomes.

"It is felt by the committee that some direction has been given to the interest in science through our concerted effort in studying the status and the needs and in working through together ways of meeting the needs."

Some General Recommendations

As indicated in the introduction, these are but a few of the places where curriculum construction and in-service training of teachers are taking place. Several States are at work on materials of instruction; many, but not enough, teachers colleges are offering practical courses in subject matter and teaching methods to prospective teachers of elementary science. Of special note is the field course and the on-campus courses offered under the direction of Dr. Gerald S. Craig at Teachers College, Columbia University. Many general supervisors of elementary schools are sponsoring work to assist their teachers to increase the effectiveness of their teaching of science. During the past 10 years the growth in interest and the progress has been pronounced.

If this interest and this progress are

increase to meet the present and future needs of girls and boys, certain steps must be taken by all school systems and by many more institutions of higher learning, State departments, and other administrative units. Specifically here are some of these steps:

There is need for more emphasis on science in many of our elementary schools through activated plans initiated by the superintendents, principals, and supervisors and carried out through planning and working by the teachers themselves in the schools in which they serve.

It is impossible to overestimate the necessity for teachers colleges and all institutions that train teachers for elementary schools to reexamine their present offering in background science courses and in science teaching methods and revamp them to fit the needs of teachers in elementary schools. These institutions, with rare exceptions, are not equipping teachers to teach elementary science. Until more teachers colleges recognize this deficiency and take steps to remedy it, elementary schools will continue to receive untrained science teachers.

There is need for more science equipment in the elementary schools of the Nation; not complicated apparatus, but minimum essential equipment plus facilities for making additional instruction materials.

There is need for greater cooperation between high schools and elementary schools in planning a 12-year sequence of science instruction. Elementary school teachers can make much more extensive use of the high-school science teaching staff as consultants in planning and administering the science program in the elementary school.

Above all, it is essential that teachers themselves become more aware of the contributions elementary science can make to the growth and development of girls and boys. School administrators must in most cases take the initial steps to bring about this feeling and then make it possible for teachers themselves to function in the planning of a program workable in the schools. Much progress is being made in the field of elementary science. Much more must be made before the schools actually serve the needs of pupils in this important area of experience.

LIBRARY SERVICES

Book Week Spreads Throughout World

by Nora E. Beust, Specialist for School and Children's Libraries

CHILDREN'S Book Week will be celebrated this year during the week of November 16–22. The date has been changed from the second week of November, which had been designated as Children's Book Week for several years, to the third week in response to requests from school librarians whose observance of American Education Week, the second week of November, had conflicted with Book Week.

The slogan around which libraries, schools, and civic organizations will plan their annual programs is "Books for the World of Tomorrow."

The poster interpreting the theme was designed by Ingri and Edgar Parin d'Aulaire. The poster depicts the many generations of American children who have been privileged to inherit an ever increasing wealth of books which delight and entertain them as well as prepare them to be intelligent and cooperative citizens in "the world of tomorrow."

"Treasure Chest U. S. A." is the specific project that is being sponsored this year, by the Children's Book Council, The Save the Children Federation, Inc., and the Treasure Chest Campaign. Approximately 25,000 children's books have been sent to boys and girls in the war devastated areas of the world through Treasure Chests. The present plan is to include children in this country who live in rural districts not served by libraries.

A Children's Book Fair will be held in New York City November 20, 21, 22, and 23 in the Education Hall of the American Museum of Natural History. The *New York Times*, the American Museum of Natural History, and the Children's Book Council are sponsoring this first large-scale book fair to be held during Book Week. Approximately 5,000 children's books will be displayed but no books will be sold. Programs featuring scientists and authors and illustrators of children's books are being planned.

The attempts since 1944 to make Book Week international have resulted in developments abroad. In New Zealand, for example, the Library Association decided to make an annual award to the author of the most distinguished contribution to New Zealand literature for children. The precedent of the American awards which are named after pioneers in the field of children's literature has been followed, except that the pioneer chosen was a native-born New Zealander rather than a celebrity from another country. The first award was announced during Children's Book Week in November 1945.

The U. S. Information Library in Cairo, Egypt, that opened its children's book service in a reconverted garage two years ago, made use of the Book Week poster and other materials prepared by the Children's Book Council. Posters were sent to the Egyptian, French, and English Schools as well as placed on display in the library. An exhibit of approximately 100 children's books attracted the atention of teachers, parents, and children. The librarian reports that the observance of Book Week marked the beginning of larger service to children.

In Istanbul, Turkey, the celebration of Children's Book Week served as an

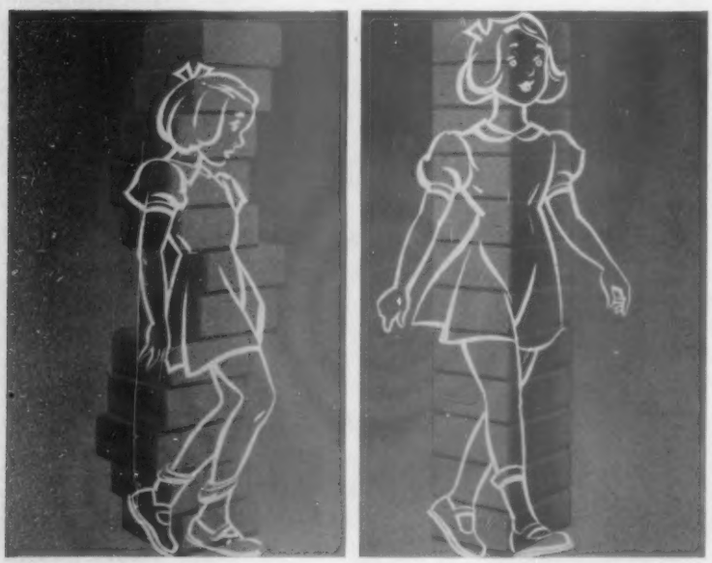
(Turn to page 30)

GOOD POSTURE FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

THE FOLLOWING MATERIAL was prepared by Helen Manley, Specialist in Health Instruction and Physical Education. The bulletin was first processed by the Elementary Education Division, but so many requests have come for copies that it is reissued in SCHOOL LIFE in order to be more widely available.

What is Good Posture?

GOOD POSTURE is more than standing or sitting straight. It is that position of the body in which all of its parts are working effectively and with proper balance, ease, and comfort. GOOD POSTURE IS IMPORTANT. The internal organs have plenty of room and the external



YOU LOOK BETTER *Courtesy: Samuel Higby Camp Institute for Better Posture*

parts are in correct balance when the body has good posture. Lungs, heart, and digestive organs function better when they have room. YOU FEEL BETTER.

Steps to Good Posture

A. Standing

1. Feet parallel, about 6 inches apart.
2. Head high, as if balancing a book on the head.
3. Chest out.
4. Stomach and hips firm.
5. Weight slightly forward, over the balls of the feet, and distributed evenly on each foot.
6. Knees very lightly flexed—NOT LOCKED.
7. Abdomen and back as flat as possible.

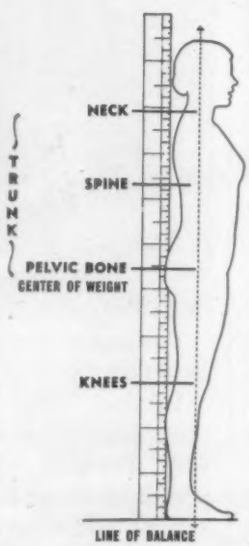
B. Sitting

1. Sit back in the chair, so that hips touch the back of the chair: Feet flat on the floor.
2. Sit tall.
3. Rock forward from the hips when writing.
4. Keep chest out, and neck in line with upper back.

C. Walking

1. Knees and ankles limber, toes pointed straight ahead.
2. Legs close together—DON'T WALK LIKE A DUCK.
3. Swing legs forward from hip joints.
4. Lift feet off the ground—DON'T SHUFFLE.
5. Head and chest high.
6. Shoulders free and easy—NO PULLING OR TENSION.
7. The heel touches the ground first—in each step, the progression is: HEEL, OUTSIDE OF FOOT, TOES.

How to Test Your Posture



The dotted line extending from top of skull through hips to insteps, is the line of balance or gravity

Courtesy: Samuel Higby Camp Institute for Better Posture

Good posture is a result of holding your body in a balanced position. The easiest way to attain it is to think of an imaginary line running (side view) from the tip of the skull through your neck, shoulders, hips, knees, and insteps. When the head is bent forward, the abdomen thrust out, or the back bent, the line of gravity is shifted, and a strain placed on muscles to keep the body from falling.

To test: Stand with back to wall with head, heels, shoulders, and calves of legs touching it, hands by sides. Flatten hollow of back by pressing buttocks down against the wall. Space at back of waist should not be greater than the thickness of your hand.

Now check your posture standing with back against the wall with the figure alongside the ruler on left. If it is approximately the same, your posture is excellent, grade A. If your heels do not touch the wall when your shoulders do, you may be graded B or C. Use a yardstick to test if the dotted line of balance on the figure coincides with yours.

Stand facing close to wall, palms of hands touching front

of thighs. If chest touches wall first, your posture is probably excellent (A); or at least good (B); if head touches first, it is only fair (C); if abdomen touches first, your posture is really bad (D), and you should see a physician.

Some Causes of Poor Posture

1. Poorly balanced diet. Food that builds bone and muscle is essential in order to have good posture.
2. Rapid growth. Different parts of the body sometimes develop at different rates, and there may be lack of coordination and poor posture.
3. Fatigue. Overfatigue causes inability of the muscles to hold the body in the best position.
4. General poor health. Infection, deformities caused by rickets and infantile paralysis, tuberculosis, poor vision are among causes of poor posture.
5. Poor posture habits. Sitting, sleeping, walking, standing in poor posture for a long time may develop habits which are hard to overcome.
6. Lack of vigorous and balanced exercise. Exercise should develop the whole body and strengthen the muscles in order to hold the body in good posture.
7. Mental health. Discouragement, lack of security, worry, and fear may result in slumping and poor posture.
8. Structural and orthopedic irregularities. Some children are born with, or have acquired, nonremediable postural irregularities.

Parents and Teachers

Draw the line between the DO'S and DON'TS

DO . . . . . Say "Stand and sit tall."

. . . Show children how to check their posture and what good posture is.

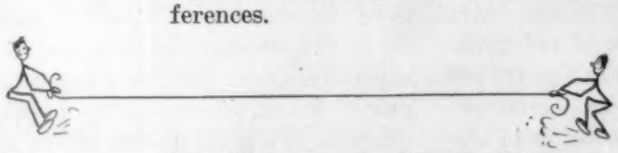
. . . Check the adjustment of seats so that each child may sit with his feet on the floor when he is sitting as far back as possible. He can then write without raising a shoulder or rounding his back.

. . . Minimize fatigue by providing frequent rest periods.

. . . Abolish children's fear and feeling of insecurity and give many opportunities for success.

. . . Through physical examinations, discover the causes of poor posture and seek the remedy.

. . . Give children opportunities for a constructive physical education program, preferably outdoors and geared to individual differences.



DON'T . . . . . Say "Put your shoulders back."

. . . Ask Johnny why he doesn't walk like Jimmy.

. . . Have all the chairs the same size and not adjustable.

. . . Let children sit or stand for long periods of time.

. . . Nag, fuss, or raise your voice at children.

. . . Force children into corrective exercise without the advice of a doctor.

. . . Expect a child to maintain good posture without a musculature capable of holding the body in position.

Strong Muscles for Fun

1. Chinese Get Up

(a) Partners sit back to back, feet flat on the floor, knees close to chest. Lock elbows, push, and stand.

(b) Sit down, extend legs, and repeat.

(c) For variety, stand half way; i. e., to a sitting-in-air position. From this position turn in a circle.

2. Bear Dance

Squat on one heel and extend the other leg straight out to the side, change legs. Repeat 10–15 times. KEEP A STRAIGHT BACK WHILE DOING THIS.

3. Wings

Leader in front of group. Group puts fingertips on shoulders, then each does what the leader calls, *not* what he does. Fingertips stay on shoulders. *Wings up*—elbows are raised; *Back*—elbows go back; *Down*—elbows are lowered.

4. Climbing

Ropes, ladders, jungle gym, trees.

5. Lie on Floor

Lie on floor, face down. Place hands on floor, shoulder-width apart. With weight only on hands and tip of toe, walk, dragging the body.

6. Merry-Go-Round

Four to eight people stand, clasp wrists. Every other person sits down and braces feet in the center. Those standing lift the ones seated and move in clockwise direction, then reverse. THE ONES SEATED MUST KEEP THEIR BODIES RIGID.

7. Wheelbarrow

Partners should be about equal in weight. Number 1 puts his hands on the floor, feet apart. Number 2 walks between Number 1's legs and grasps his knees. Number 1 walks, keeping his weight on his hands and arms stiff.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Reprints of the above material may be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. (Available by Nov. 20.)

What the Community Expects of Its Teachers

An address by William J. Lyons, Assistant to the Superintendent of Schools, San Diego, Calif., delivered at the September general staff meeting.

BEFORE considering what the community has a right to expect of its teachers, perhaps we should reverse the question to read: What do teachers expect of the community? The answer is not difficult and need not be academic. Teachers have expressed themselves in real and practical terms on this subject through their own professional organizations, and a bill of rights for teachers has recently been developed.

What Teachers Expect

Teachers expect the community to recognize the difficulty and the tremendous importance of their job, and, as a result, to provide adequate pay for their services—a professional wage for a professional job—not a mere cost of living wage designed solely to fluctuate with the rise and fall of prices and the business cycle, and thereby to provide teachers with a bare subsistence wage.

Teachers have a right to expect a reasonable degree of security and tenure of position, free from the fear of retribution for political and petty personal reasons by school board members, superintendents, or principals. Teachers rightly expect the guarantee of academic freedom, which, of course, exists in most instances in direct ratio to the degree of security and tenure of position.

Academic Freedom Defined

Let us not quibble over terms. By academic freedom is meant the right to have various points of view and opinions on controversial issues discussed freely in the classroom by pupils who have no fear of offending the teacher and suffering the consequences, and by teachers who have no fear of recrimination from the school administration or the lay citizenry. Academic freedom, of course, does not imply the right to use the classroom for personal propaganda purposes, to advocate subversive doctrines, or to discuss matters of questionable propriety. All right-thinking teachers will accept these limitations as just and proper.

Teachers naturally prefer a democratic and progressive type of administration, one in which any teacher can offer constructive suggestions for improvement which will at least be given due consideration. Teachers appreciate being invited to assist in educational planning and have contributed significantly to the improvement of the total school program. Any school system that does not allow for these things is not deserving of the names democratic or progressive.

Social Freedom Demanded

And last, but certainly not least, teachers have a right to demand social and personal freedoms which enable them to live like normal human beings. Let us hope that no teacher in America will ever be asked to sign a contract such as was offered to a young lady in a small South Carolina community less than a decade ago, which forbade her during the 9 months' period of her employment to fall in love or to have any dates with young men, except insofar as church work was concerned. Such contractual limitations are an insult to an American citizen as they deny fundamental human rights. Teachers are citizens, after all, and as such have a perfect right to a social, political, and private life. The storm of protests and public indignation which arose over this South Carolina contract, once it was given adequate publicity, finally caused the school trustees to delete the offensive terms, which is evidence that the public as a whole does not favor such unreasonable restrictions for teachers.

Time does not permit further consideration of this aspect of the problem, but we as teachers can rightly ask ourselves to what degree our community has satisfied these expectations. Allowing for normal differences of opinion and the incidence of human error to be expected in any large business such as ours, we can certainly agree that our community has provided real leadership in the setting up of a good educational system. The citizens of California last November, by a 3 to 1 majority, voted to provide additional State funds for education, which resulted in greatly improved salary schedules throughout the State. We enjoy tenure of position and the exercise of academic freedom, our teaching loads have been decreased for the coming year, we have a democratic and progressive school administration, and we enjoy reasonable personal and social freedom. Public education is on the march, and in hundreds of communities throughout the Nation significant gains are being made.

* * * * *

What the Community Expects

We now come to the problem of what the community should expect of its teachers, and by the community we mean the great body of reasonable and right-thinking parents, citizens, and taxpayers, and not the minority group of enemies of the public schools, malcontents, and crackpots.

First and foremost, the community expects its teachers to do a good, thorough, and sincere job of teaching in the classroom. The job is not an easy one, as any of us who have taught well know. It requires the exercise of great patience and the employment of real teaching skills. To do a good job requires that teachers be professionally trained and that they continue a program of professional improvement during their teaching careers.

The community has the right to expect that its teachers be well-rounded, personable human beings. Youth has stated its preference in no uncertain terms, and to put teachers with twisted and warped personalities in the classroom is little short of criminal. The sponsors of the recent Nation-wide radio contest, "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most," were convinced that the qualities of a good teacher were not always to be found on the rating sheets kept on file in the office of the principal or the superintendent. Twelve thousand pupils in frank, serious letters listed the qualities of a good teacher in the order of their importance, and the results are most revealing. Cooperative, democratic attitude, kindliness, and consideration for the individual, patience, good disposition, and consistent be-

havior led the list. One pupil wrote. "(My teacher) has a smiling face a kind manner and a pleasing voice. She is a human being and not a nagging, driving bunch of nerves." In those two simple sentences this pupil has thrown down the gauntlet to the teaching profession of America.

The community has a right to expect that every public-school teacher exercise scrupulous fairness and justice in handling all the children of all the people. Teachers should have a natural sympathy for and understanding of the problems of minority groups, and a willingness to appreciate contrary points of view expressed by pupils. Nothing short of this standard is acceptable. Persons with racial, religious, political, or social prejudices, bigots and vindictive autocrats, have no place in the classrooms of America.

And finally, the community has a right to expect of its teachers a willingness to cooperate with character building community agencies and service organizations in the development of recreational and extracurricular programs for youth. The services of teachers are not always to be confined between the hours of 8 and 3, 5 days per week.

A teacher who measures up to all these expectations becomes automatically the finest possible public relations agent. The community must be kept continuously aware of what is being done in our schools, and as teachers we are expected to interpret the schools correctly to our community. But the teacher who does a good conscientious job daily in the classroom does more to sell education to the community than any other single public relations device. It is true that the end product of teaching is not easily measurable as is possible with office and factory workers and certain other professions. But the skilled, enthusiastic teacher sells education to his pupils and is discussed favorably in the homes of most of them, thereby selling schools to the parents and to the neighbors as well.

Complaining Teachers

It is particularly important that we teachers keep our gripes, complaints, and personal disappointments within the professional family. Nothing is more damaging to the school public relations program than the whining complaints of unhappy and disturbed teachers. Teachers who continuously complain of their assignments and duties, who are never in agreement with administrative policies and procedures, and who reflect and air their personal dissatisfactions, not only in the community, but in the very classroom itself, have no right to remain in the profession, and any system of tenure that keeps them there is morally and ethically unjust and indefensible. I make this statement, without fear of contradiction, as a former classroom teacher and officer of local and State teacher organizations who has always stoutly defended the rights and securities of teachers. Teacher tenure can still be defended as proper protection for the great majority of teachers. But, after all, our first duty is to the youth of the community. There is no defense for teachers hiding under the cloak of tenure in order to become habitual critics of the school and social system and to air their complaints, personal disappointments, and frustrations.

One further warning is in order. Teachers now face the possibility of overselling to the public the fact of inadequate salaries. Just last week I was distressed to hear a report of the education committee meeting of the international convention of the service club to which I belong. It was reported that after the showing of an excellent film on the results of education in the community, the meeting was thrown open to discussion and was completely monopolized by several educators who spent the entire time bitterly complaining of their low salaries. The person who made this report to the local education committee is normally friendly to schools, but he was thoroughly disgusted, and rightly so, with the degeneration of a meeting of some 200 persons into a personal gripe session dominated by 10 or 12 teachers.

The status of teachers in public education, in general, has improved greatly in the past few years as a result of wise and courageous educational leadership and the growth and development of strong professional organizations. Teachers have come through a difficult period, and the road ahead is not entirely smooth. Some groups momentarily lost sight of their professional obligations and indulged in strikes, wild talk, and irresponsible actions which caused some loss of public faith in the profession.

Emphasize Improved Services

Now it is time for our profession to emphasize improved services in education. It is time to take stock of ourselves as teachers to make sure that we are doing the best possible job in the classroom. We must remember that while the public has voted more funds for education, it has done something infinitely more worth while—it has at long last recognized the true importance of teaching as a profession, and the limitless possibilities of the instructor in teaching skills, in counseling, in molding character, and in shaping the future for America's boys and girls. Once this fact is recognized by the public, adequate budgets and professional salaries for teachers will no longer have to be fought for and defended.

We are rapidly approaching this universal recognition of the importance of public education. Will we be able to maintain this public confidence and support? We can do so if we keep our professional sights high and if we never forget that as teachers we are dedicated to the children of America. The personal satisfaction of helping to mold and shape the careers and destinies of young people is rewarding beyond all measure. It is the thing that has made our profession great. It explains why teachers for centuries have devoted their lives to the profession without any hope of proper financial reward. It will pull us through our present difficult period and it is the thing upon which we base our hopes for the future of education in America.

"Great National Resource"

The National Society for Crippled Children and Adults will hold its annual convention at the LaSalle Hotel, Chicago, on November 3–5.

The program will be centered about the theme "The Handicapped—a Great National Resource," with special attention given to rehabilitation services and to the development of programs for the cerebral palsied.

Are Schools Returning to the People?

by Edwin H. Miner, Associate Commissioner

TO THOSE educational leaders who have not been familiar with activities of the Citizens Federal Committee on Education it may come as a partial surprise that the U. S. Office of Education has a lay group serving in an advisory capacity on vital matters of educational policy. Organized in 1946, this group has experienced growing pains similar to those of most newly formed school boards. Its members have assumed their tasks with the same air of humility which characterizes good school committee members. To be sure, the Office of Education is not in the business of operating schools and to that end this lay committee is not engaged in underwriting or determining operating policies for education in this country. However, the United States Commissioner of Education felt that in these critical times of readjustment from war to peace wherein every element of our existence, be it economic, social, political, or religious, is in a most unsettled state, it would be desirable for educators to have the benefit of thought and reflections of outstanding leaders in America today on the problems facing education.

Commissioner Studebaker felt also that such a committee could in its own right take the initiative in critical issues and extend a salutary leadership in the development of a public opinion which would assist and support schools in their endeavors to meet the new challenges. The record of the committee's action in behalf of the teacher crisis (see the October 1947, issue of SCHOOL LIFE) is one indication of what can be done when interested civic leaders pull together. In assisting in that crisis they have also helped the whole cause of education without prejudice or damage to local prestige or autonomy.

Citizens Federal Committee

The fall meeting of the Citizens Federal Committee on Education (announcement on this page) gave opportunity within a framework of the agenda, for committee reports, summaries, and discussions.

CITIZENS FEDERAL COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

October 27–28, 1947

Washington, D. C.

Chairman
THOMAS C. BOUSHALL,
presiding

Program

Reports of Committee Activity
Education for National Security—Presentation by Commissioner John W. Studebaker setting forth projected program plans of Office for 1947–48
Other Business

Above is indicated the general program for the Committee's fall meeting.

Schools Under Searchlight

Is it a new venture to enlist an enlightened public in the joint planning of policy and program for the schools? Obviously, not. In the early days in this country when schools changed from the tutorial to the public-supported common schools, legal enactments assured the public that these new instruments of group instruction would not only be supported by all the people, but also would be controlled by them through representation. If spirited participation by the public in basic school issues appears new now, it may be because public schools in some areas have taken on the unfortunate appearance of another governmental activity which belongs as a vested right to the possessive hands of those who operate them. We should remember that there is nothing in the mandate or authority for the operation of public schools which has ever transferred responsibility from the public to the teaching profession. Schoolmen should not be alarmed if there now appears to be a swing of the educational pendulum back to a point where there will be more energetic activity by the public in the planning councils of public-school operation. Such a swing is not indicative of regression, but is rather a return of strength. Perhaps any weaknesses due to inbreeding of ideas can be eliminated and the curriculum reanimated.

At a time of national or world-wide emergency, when men's basic concepts of government, security, and social welfare are in debate, either to be defended or modified, the country's schools come under a strong public searchlight. Is youth being prepared to face the new challenges? Is the national security being adequately provided for in the training programs? Are the basic needs of mankind being provided for? Such questions were never more pertinent than they are today.

To any schoolmen who expected that the close of the war would mean an about-face in educational emphasis with a return to the prewar status quo, the current situation must be dismaying. Enrollments are still abnormal; qualified teachers are still scarce; new equipment and plant are difficult to obtain. The old, prewar courses of study do not quite fit; former methods and tools seem clumsy to those who have tried new ones. Higher education is faced with mass production. As if all this were not enough to confound those pedagogs, there is the additional hazard of "public intervention" in the schools.

Renaissance of Public Interest

Today's alert schoolman will not only know his basic psychology and pedagogy better than ever, but he will be acutely conscious of the tenor of the public and the demands of this era in which we still struggle so desperately for the right of existence. He will sense the air of futility that grips remnants of a battered Europe which, 2 years after war, is not yet quite certain whether might makes right or right makes might. Not even during the war was the conflict in ideology over desirable forms of government more intense than today when democracy, together with the freedoms it extols, finds itself challenged by a counter concept of authoritarianism which seems bent on sweeping all other governments aside

and saddling humbled and crippled nations with its machine. In today's world race between peace with freedom and so-called peace by slavery, the schoolmaster is being looked to quite as much as the general as a builder of security. Increasingly there is an awareness that this is a conflict which will be won only when the minds of people function with their hearts and the priceless rights of man are guaranteed and assured to all mankind.

Fortunately teachers are not having to carry this load unassisted. At no time during the past 100 years have the schools been more clearly seen by the public eye. Inadequacies of teacher salaries, degradations and abuses of human dignity, social isolation, and ridicule have been rather freely admitted by an ashamed public, which views the future with alarm and the rapidly decreasing educational supply with deep concern.

The silver lining in today's storm clouds is this renaissance of public interest in our Nation's schools. It is taking place all over the country. Encouraged by dynamic educational leadership, the public is effectively giving vitality to the policies and programs of our schools. Not only do they want teachers better paid and accorded full respect due their responsible mission, but there is also clear evidence that the public wants education to be extended to more people, improved in quality and universality, and more intimately integrated with life and its demands.

Examples Cited

If you are a superintendent or administrator who is skeptical of the values inherent in well-planned lay participation, we suggest you study in detail the projects which are briefly outlined here, or others which are being undertaken in your area of the country.

New Hampshire affords one interesting example. That State, long an exponent of democratic processes, has just completed and published a *Lay-Professional Report* to the people of New Hampshire for the youth of the State. Brief, readable, this laymen's report is the product of 432 members of 12 regional areas. In 8 months these regional councils, made up of one-third laymen, one-third school committee members, and one-third educators, held more than 100 working sessions and developed a comprehensive program of education for the students of the State. A request to the State Commissioner of Education, Concord, N. H., will bring you a copy of the report and a recital of the tangible results that have already accrued therefrom.

Florida supplies the data for another fine illustration of public effort in education. There, when it became necessary for a detailed survey of the Statewide educational system, the Governor turned to the citizenry of Florida and named a lay surveying group. Under their control there evolved an excellent study based upon the observations of lay and professional people both from within and without the State. The conclusions and recommendations, however, were drafted by Florida people for the benefit of Florida people. This survey has already brought about Statewide improvements and will be the basis for long-range legislation and educational planning.

There are many other illustrations that could be listed, such as the "talk-it-over" discussion plans now functioning in Syracuse, N. Y., Birmingham, Ala., and Allentown, Pa., and the activity of the Institute for Research in Social Science at the University of North Carolina which encourages communities to work out resource-use programs in education.

Since democratic education is of the people, for the people, and by the people, let's get laymen and professionals together in the cooperative planning of realistic school programs for American youth.

OFFICE OF EDUCATION EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS ASSISTANCE

NEA Publishes Victory Action Program

IN THE *NEA Handbook and Manual*, published August 1947, the National Education Association outlines its Victory Action Program for the strengthening of the teaching profession in America. This program is Part I of the manual, and is described as "a tool for leaders in our united education associations." Consisting of 449 pages, paper-bound, the manual may be bought for $1 from NEA's national headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

TRIBUTE TO TEACHERS

THE FOLLOWING communication has been received by Commissioner Studebaker from B. de Rougé, Secretary-General, League of Red Cross Societies, Geneva, Switzerland.

The Junior Red Cross Advisory Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies, which met in Paris from May 14 to 17 last, desirous of paying tribute to the very important part played by the teaching body in the development of the Junior Red Cross in the fifty-one countries forming a world membership of thirty-two million, unanimously voted the following resolution:

That this Committee expresses its warm appreciation and its gratitude to the members of the teaching body, who through their understanding, their goodwill and their initiative have contributed in very large measure to the success and the extension of the work of the Junior Red Cross.

The Secretariat of the League of Red Cross Societies, in bringing this resolution to your attention, associates itself with this expression of gratitude on the part of the Advisory Committee, for it has long been aware of the great services rendered by the teaching body in the successful development of the Junior Red Cross.

The Junior Red Cross Advisory Committee was created in 1946 to supervise the development of the movement and the improvement of the methods used in carrying out its programme of health, service and international goodwill. It is composed of educators and Junior Red Cross Directors representing the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of the following countries: Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Panama, Sweden, Turkey, U. S. S. R. and the United States.

I shall be grateful if you will communicate this resolution to the members of the teaching body in the United States.

School Population of the Future

by Hope Tisdale Eldridge and Joel Williams, Bureau of the Census

IN FORECASTING population or characteristics of the population such as educational attainment, it is not possible to take account of all factors, especially those which are not measurable or not predictable. For this reason, we prefer to speak of "projections" or "forecasts" rather than of "future estimates" or "predictions." The last two terms have an air of conviction about the future which the statistician is anxious to avoid.

The act of projection assumes that the trends of the past will continue in the future; that if a definite and consistent pattern appears in a historical series of data, one is justified in extending this pattern, though within limits, to be sure. For instance, it would not do to extrapolate the decline in fertility to the vanishing point or the decrease in mean size of family to zero. Yet, within the range of recorded statistics, these two declines have persisted with only sporadic interruption.

This description is oversimplified. A projection that is statistically respectable is not made by one sweep of the pen along the X-axis, or even by one carefully fitted mathematical curve computed from the proper roots and powers. It is, rather, a composite of as many subsidiary projections as can be mustered, each subsidiary projection representing one or more of the measurable factors which contribute to the phenomenon under consideration.

The population projections recently completed by the Bureau of the Census in cooperation with P. K. Whelpton of the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems were made separately for each sex, color, and nativity group.[1] They were based on projections of birth rates and mortality rates that were specific for each 5-year age group within each sex-color-nativity group. Furthermore, each set of mortality and fertility assumptions was given three levels of projection—a high, a medium, and a low. The resulting population figures are to be shown on the basis of various combinations of assumptions and are to include allowances for varying amounts of immigration, from none to 1,000,000 every 5 years.

These forecasts are a revision of a set prepared by W. S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton and published by the National Resources Planning Board in 1943. The unexpectedly high wartime birth rates and the unexpectedly low wartime civilian death rates made it seem desirable to make this revision. Most of the age groups of the population were not greatly affected by revision, but the age group under 5 years in 1945, representing births between 1940 and 1945, had to be increased substantially as a result of both the underestimating of births and the overestimating of deaths in the earlier set.

Since the revised forecasts were prepared, the birth rate has climbed to a new high that leaves demographers wondering whether the revised forecasts for 1950 may not be pitched too low for the youngest age group. Indeed, unless the present high fertility is followed immediately by a compensatory drop, these forecasts, except possibly the high fertility set, will underestimate the population under 5 years in 1950.

There is even some question whether a fundamental psychological change may not be taking place. The estimates assume that the secular decline in fertility will be resumed by 1950 and will continue at a slowing pace until the end of the century. But if attitudes toward childbearing actually are changing, it is possible that the long-time trend will begin to reverse itself within the next 50 years. There does not seem to be much doubt that fertility among those groups of the population whose fertility is still high will continue to decline, but there is some possibility that the low fertility groups may show a rise. Such a stabilization of fertility might or might not be above the level required to replace the population and prevent a decrease in numbers. The population forecasts upon which this discussion is based indicate that a peak of some 165,000,000 will be reached near the end of the century (as compared with about 142,700,000 as of January 1, 1947) and that a decrease in population will then begin.

At the outset of the war, it was expected that the birth rate would rise temporarily above trend with improved economic conditions (the rate fell below trend during the 1930's when economic conditions were bad), that it would then fall below trend during the war and would have a second temporary rise after the war with the return of servicemen. Actually this is the shape that the birth rate curve has taken so far. However, the peak in the birth rate 10 months after Pearl Harbor was higher than expected, the decline thereafter was smaller than expected, and the postwar rise, beginning about the middle of 1946, is higher than expected. The number of births in December 1946, was higher than for any month on record and the rate (on an annual basis) was higher than for any year since 1915. The number of 6-year-olds on September 1, 1946, was 2,358,000. The children of the war year 1942–43 will enter the schools in the fall of 1949—some 3,000,000. When the schools open their doors in the fall of 1953 to the children who are now being born, they will receive a larger crop of 6-year-olds into the first grade than they have ever known, perhaps as many as 4,000,000.

Trends in Population

With all these reservations in mind, one is in a position to examine the projections without any delusions as to their exactness. Figure 1 presents, for selected age groups, the medium set of population forecasts—that is, projections according to "medium" fertility and "medium" mortality. These forecasts include no allowance for immigration after the middle of 1945, the base

[1] Bureau of the Census, *Population—Special Reports, Series* P–46, No. 7, "Forecasts of the Population of the United States, by Age and Sex: 1945 to 2000." This release presents only the "medium" estimates. The full report will be published some time in 1947.

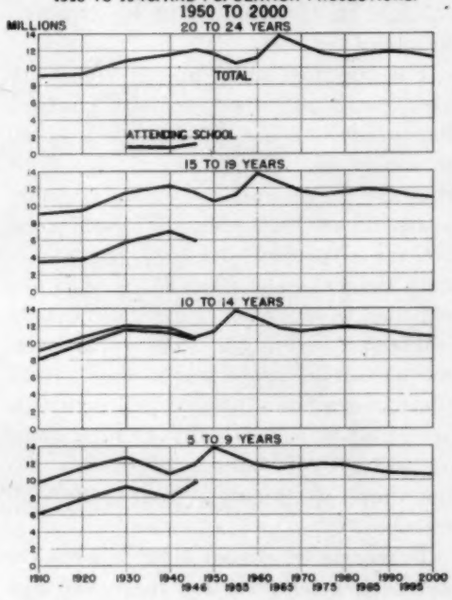
date for the revised figures. The chart shows for 1910 to the year 2000, the number in the four 5-year age groups of the population that ordinarily go to school. These are: 5 to 9 years, 10 to 14 years, 15 to 19 years, and 20 to 24 years. The last was included as an approximation to the college group, in spite of the fact that a relatively small proportion of the population 20 to 24 attends school.

At first, the plan was to show age groups that approximated the various educational classes more closely. But since virtually the same trends would show up, whichever age group is used, and since the latter part of this discussion, relating to educational attainment, has to be in terms of the conventional 5-year age groups, this classification seemed to be the most useful for all purposes.

The number of children 5 to 9 years old shows increases between 1910 and 1930, is lower in 1940 (the depression deficit), peaks in 1950 (the wartime surplus), then diminishes gradually until the year 2000, when the number is about the same as in 1940. The older age groups show the same contours, but each has a lag after the next younger age group, which represents the aging of successive groups. Because persons in the age groups between 10 and 24 years in 1940 were born before the depression during a period of higher birth rates, their numbers in 1940 are higher and their decrease by the year 2000 is larger (between 0.5 and 1.5 million) than for the youngest age group. The diagonal patterns of dips and rises show how waves and troughs in numbers of births move up through the age groups and affect the size of the potential school population at the various school levels. Children born during the war will be 5 to 9 years old in 1950, 10 to 14 in 1955, 15 to 19 in 1960, and 20 to 24 in 1965. This group forms a major peak in each graph.

Only those fluctuations which had already occurred by 1945 are reflected in these data. No attempt was made to predict such fluctuations in the future, though they will no doubt occur, as in the past, in response to changing conditions. The chief purpose of this chart is to demonstrate that, even with a continued decline in fertility in the future, the absolute numbers of persons of school age will not dwindle away by the end of the century. The number of persons in the childbearing ages will continue to be large enough to maintain a fairly constant child population in spite of lowered birth rates. This is true at the elementary school level, and it is even more certainly true at the high school and college levels, since the proportion who attend school at these levels is still increasing and the number may be expected to continue to increase whether the total population in the corresponding age groups increases or not. This being the case, there would seem to be no possibility of our needing to consider the eventuality of a contracting school population at any time in the foreseeable future.

FIG. 1.- POPULATION AND NUMBER ATTENDING SCHOOL IN SPECIFIED AGE GROUPS, FOR THE UNITED STATES, 1910 TO 1946, AND POPULATION PROJECTIONS, 1950 TO 2000



Although the size of these population groups may be expected to remain fairly constant, the proportion that they make up of the total population will undergo considerable change. With the decline in fertility and the increase in average length of life that are implicit in these projections, the proportion of the population in the younger age groups will shrink steadily. A demonstration of how the "educational load" will be reduced by these two factors can be obtained by expressing the number 5 to 19 years old as a ratio to the number 20 years old and over. To be sure, an increasing proportion of those 20 to 24 may be expected to be in school, but probably the major share of this age group will always be either in the labor force or married and keeping house. Meanwhile, there will probably always be a portion of the 15- to 19-year-olds working or keeping house to offset, partially at least, those of the next older group who are in school. The ratio of persons 5 to 19 years old to persons 20 and over was 72 per 100 in 1910; it dropped to 53 per 100 in 1940; the medium projections show that by the year 2000, it will have fallen to 35 per 100. Thus, while the number of school-age persons first rises then declines moderately, their ratio to the adult population diminishes throughout, and is cut more than half in the 90 years between 1910 and 2000.

Trends in School Enrollment

A question on school attendance was asked in a census enumeration as early as 1840, but it is only for the period from 1910 to the present that there is what can be considered a reasonably comparable series of statistics.[2] The data collected in the census are restricted to those persons taking formal schooling, that is, enrolled in the regular school system. Thus, the Census Bureau has the unique advantage of making available a homogeneous mass of education data, collected on a comparable basis in all parts of the Nation, which can be used from decade to decade and region by region for measuring the growth of the school population and for other purposes connected with the evaluation of the school program and the determination of the efficiency of our educational system.

Figure 1 also shows the number reported as attending school for each of the three younger age groups at each census from 1910 to 1940. The terminal points on these lines represent the numbers obtained in a national survey of the civilian noninstitutional population

[2] Comparability between data for the various years is somewhat limited because of differences in the form of census inquiry as well as by differences in the time of year at which censuses were taken. For example, the question in the 1940 census related to school attendance between March 1 and April 1 of that year, whereas in 1930 the question related to school attendance at any time between September 1, 1929, and April 1, 1930, almost a whole academic year. If the 1930 question had been asked in 1940, it would probably have yielded higher counts than those obtained. For summary data back to 1890, see *The Sixteenth Census of the United States*, Vol. II, United States Summary, table 12.

conducted by the Bureau of the Census in October 1946.[3] Figures for the age group 20 to 24 are available only for 1930, 1940, and 1946. The inclusion of age 5 in the youngest age group makes their level as shown in figure 1 somewhat lower than it would otherwise be. The percentage for children 6 to 9 years old was 97 in October 1946. The percentage for the 10 to 14 group was 98 at that time.

The record of school attendance is generally one of increasing proportions of the school-age population attending school at each age for each decade. Table 1 shows the percent of the population, by single years of age from 6 to 20, who were enrolled in school at each census date from 1910 to 1940.

Table 1.—*Percent attending school, by single years of age from 6 to 20, for the United States:* 1910 to 1940

Age (years)	1940	1930	1920	1910
1	2	3	4	5
6	69.1	66.3	63.3	52.1
7	92.4	89.4	83.3	75.0
8	94.8	94.1	88.5	82.7
9	95.6	95.6	90.4	86.2
10	95.7	97.1	93.0	90.0
11	95.9	97.5	93.9	91.2
12	95.5	97.1	93.2	89.8
13	94.8	96.5	92.5	88.8
14	92.5	92.9	86.3	81.2
15	87.6	84.7	72.9	68.3
16	76.2	66.3	50.8	50.6
17	60.9	47.9	34.6	35.3
18	36.4	30.7	21.7	22.6
19	20.9	19.8	13.8	14.4
20	12.5	13.1	8.3	8.4

Of course, compulsory education has had a great deal to do with the improvement in attendance rates. With the passing of time, the lower limit of the age range at which schooling is compulsory has been reached steadily in the various States. During the first World War, there were only 20 States with compulsory age limit as low as 7 years; in 1946, 39 States had a lower limit of 7 or 6 years. The census statistics themselves show the effect of these changes clearly through the decades. The youngest age at which more than 9 out of 10 children were attending school has been lowered from 11 years in 1910 to 7 years in 1940 and 6 years in 1946. Furthermore, children tend to remain in school much longer, and the most marked improvements in school attendance rates have occurred among children in the high-school ages. For example, in 1910, 59 percent of the children 14 to 17 years of age were attending school as compared with 79 percent of these children in 1940.

Because enrollment for the age groups 5 to 9 and 10 to 14 is now so close to 100 percent, there is no point in trying to project it. Prospective changes in the size of the total age group are a sufficient approximation to prospective changes in the number to be expected in school.

For the next older age group, 15 to 19 years, the number in school has also increased, but the percentage in 1940 was only 56. The 1946 data for both this age group and the group 20 to 24 years old are somewhat confused by the veteran situation. In 1945, there were only 100,000 males 20 to 24 years of age enrolled in school or college, some 350,000 fewer than in 1940. One year later, when demobilization was virtually complete, more than 900,000 males in this age group were in school. Comparisons of 1946 with 1940 and earlier years cannot, therefore, be interpreted as showing trends.

Forecasts of school attendance have not been attempted for these two age groups, partly because the relationship between age and grade being attended is less clear-cut than at younger ages and partly because projections for these age groups are perhaps more appropriately made on the basis of educational attainment than on the basis of school attendance. After all, future attendance figures are not particularly useful unless they are related to the various school levels. That is to say, an estimate of the number of persons 15 to 19 years old who will be attending school next year is not of much value unless it is possible to separate the number into those who will be attending high school and those who will be attending college. Forecasts that will yield this information require a composite projection of the cross-classification of school attendance with educational attainment.

Trends in Educational Attainment

Data on educational attainment were obtained for the first time in the 1940 census. For each person, a question was asked on the highest grade of school completed. The results for this question are available by 5-year age groups, up to 75 years and over, as well as by various other characteristics, such as sex, color, nativity, parentage, and urban-rural residence.[4]

Projections from observations for only one point in time can be made on the basis of age-specific detail for a characteristic like educational attainment, which, once obtained, remains set throughout the remainder of life. If we assume that the formal education of the group that was 25 years old and over in 1940 was so nearly completed that further changes would be negligible, we can, by arranging the data by age from the oldest to the youngest, obtain a historical pattern of change with respect to our chosen characteristic.

One assumption implicit in this type of analysis is that the characteristics of a given group of persons born in a given 5-year period who survived to 1940 are the same as the characteristics of those who died before 1940. This is probably not a sound assumption. The group 70 to 74 years of age in 1940 was born between 1865 and 1870. Most of them had died before 1940. On the basis of what is known about mortality differentials by socio-economic class, it is likely that the uneducated or the less well-educated segment of this group died off faster than did the well-educated. The result is that the distribution of the survivors by years of school completed is somewhat biased in the direction of more education than would have been observed if the information had been obtained in 1895 when the group was 25 to 29 years old.

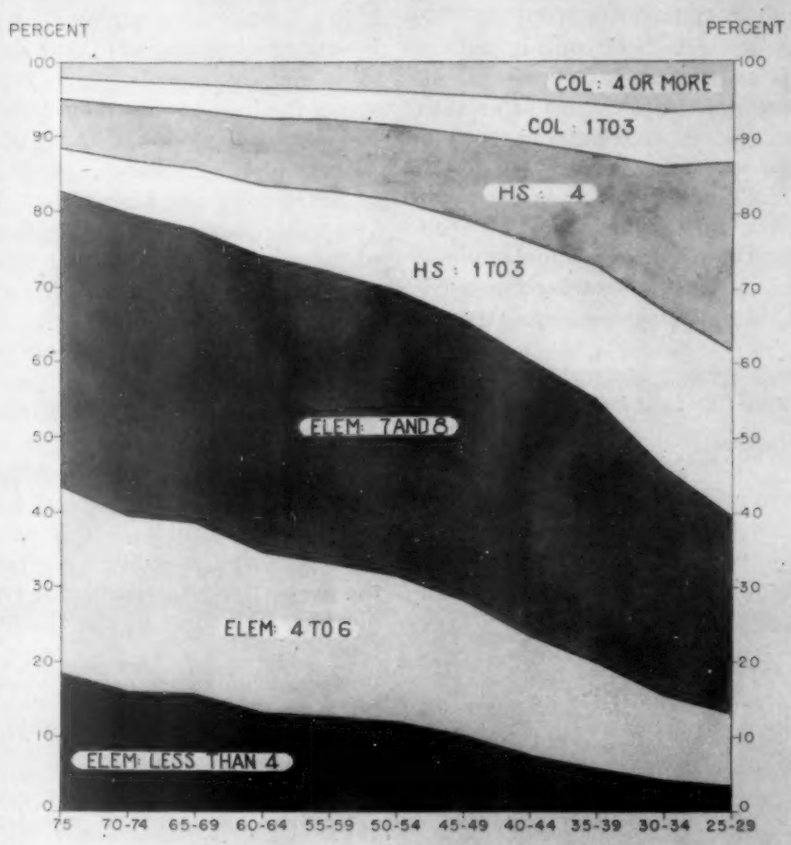
This bias is therefore greatest for the age group 75 and over and diminishes to a minimum in the group 25 to 29. Since projections are more strongly influenced by the middle and younger age groups which have been less decimated by mortality and since there is not enough information on which to base an adjustment in any case, no adjustment was attempted.

There is evidence of another type of bias in the statistics of educational attainment. It appears that there was a tendency for some respondents to overstate the amount of their schooling in reporting to the census enumerator.

[3] Comparisons between the 1940 and 1946 enumerations are somewhat affected by a seasonal difference; the former having been made in April, the latter in October. Also, the 1946 data are subject to sampling variations. For results of the 1946 survey, see Bureau of the Census, *Population*, Series P-S, No. 18, "School Enrollment of the Civilian Population: October 1946."

[4] See *The Sixteenth Census of the United States*, Vol. IV and Special Reports.

FIG. 2 - EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE POPULATION 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY AGE, 1940



The effect of such exaggeration is to set the levels of attainment a little too high. Once more, for lack of precise information on which to base any adjustment, none was made.

No doubt the data contain other errors and biases of an unknown type, but in spite of them all, the historical patterns that emerge are striking and consistent. When percentage distributions of 5-year age groups by single grades of school completed from none up to 5 or more years of college are arranged in descending order of age from 75 and over down to the 25 to 29 group, definite trends within each educational class are apparent. The percentages at the lower educational levels diminish from older to younger ages and those at the upper educational levels increase.

For table 2 and figure 2, the data by single grades were consolidated into seven broad educational classes. The trends shown by these data are extremely clear and unmistakable. The tapering-off of the areas in the lower portion of the chart reflects the decrease in the proportion of persons who receive only elementary school education. The black area, representing 0 to 3 years of schooling gives a rough picture of the liquidation of illiteracy. The widening bands in the upper portion reflect the growth of educational achievement at the high-school and college levels.

A few interruptions of trend are of interest. The small humps near the left (in the areas representing 0 to 6 years of education among the older population) probably reflect the period of heavy immigration in the early part of this century when large numbers of foreign-born with relatively small amounts of education entered this country. The fairly marked flattening in the college class among the younger population undoubtedly reflects the effects of the depression when fewer people could afford college. The flaring in the areas representing the high-school level indicates that during the depression many young people went to high school who perhaps would not have done so if they could have obtained jobs. This larger proportion with only high-school education is also caused, in part, by the inability of the "normal" number to go on to college and be classified in the topmost area of the chart.

A separate projection was made for each single grade of school completed. These particular projections were made for the total population in each age group. Better results would undoubtedly have been obtained if they had been made separately for each sex and for each color group within sex, since there are significant differences by sex and color and since any projection is improved by taking each known factor into account.

The statistics, therefore, are to be regarded only as rough estimates. In projecting a trend, no matter how clear-cut that trend may appear, it is possible to produce any number of straight lines or curves that seem to conform to the

Table 2.—*Percentage distribution, by educational attainment, of the population 25 years old and over, by age, for the United States, 1940*

Years of school completed	Age (years)										
	75 and over	70–74	65–69	60–64	55–59	50–54	45–49	40–44	35–39	30–34	25–29
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
All classes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
COLLEGE:											
4 or more	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.4	3.8	4.2	4.8	5.5	6.3	5.9
1 to 3	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.9	4.0	4.4	5.1	5.7	6.5	7.4	7.3
HIGH SCHOOL:											
4	6.6	7.4	7.9	9.2	9.7	10.2	11.4	13.3	14.9	19.3	25.0
1 to 3	5.7	7.0	7.9	9.3	10.6	11.7	13.4	15.6	17.9	20.8	22.2
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL:											
7 and 8	39.5	40.4	39.3	39.6	39.0	38.3	37.6	37.1	35.2	30.5	26.4
4 to 6	24.9	23.5	22.9	21.4	20.5	19.5	18.0	15.8	14.1	11.4	9.7
Less than 4	18.4	16.0	15.7	13.3	12.8	12.1	10.3	7.7	5.9	4.3	3.5

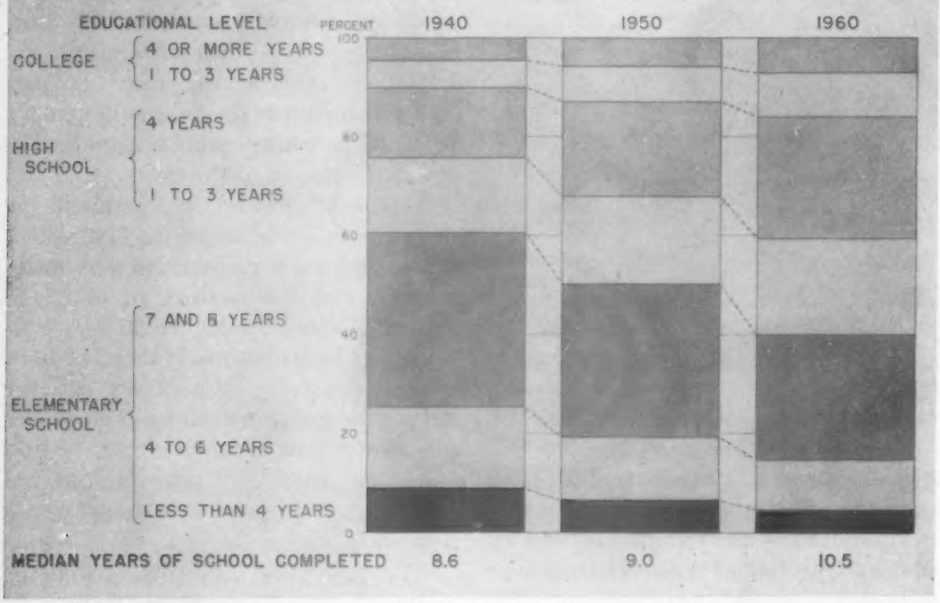
observed pattern. In dealing with this problem in connection with the population forecasts, trends and levels of fertility and mortality in areas other than the United States were studied in an attempt to set up reasonable levels for the United States in the year 2000. The records of States and of countries with low death rates and similar fertility experience were compared with the record of the United States to determine approximate time lags and to make the assumptions about our future as realistic as possible.

So, in setting levels of educational attainment in 1960 for those groups whose education had not been completed by 1940, data for the States were examined. A study of the percentage distributions by age and years of school completed for the white population of California showed roughly a 20-year lag between California and the United States as a whole. Since the projections were to extend over a 20-year period, the California pattern seemed a reasonable one to set for the country as a whole. After some minor adjustments of a fairly arbitrary nature the California percentages for white persons 25 to 29 years old in 1940 were used for all persons in the United States who will be 25 to 29 in 1960 (these were 5 to 9 years old in 1940) and the intervening values (i. e., for the group who will be 30 to 44 years old in 1960) were filled in by linear interpolation.

For all the older age groups (that is, for persons who were 25 and over in 1940, and who will be 35 and over in 1950 and 45 and over in 1960) the 1940 percentages were held constant on the assumption that their educational attainment would not change after 1940.

Thus, a set of percentages in 1950 and 1960 for each age group over 25, by which the numbers in the future population could be distributed, were obtained. The results are summarized in table 3 and figure 3, showing the distribution of the combined population 25 and over by educational classes in 1950 and 1960, with 1940 for comparison. In examining these data, one should remember that these are simple projections implied by available data for 1940 and take no account of the unusual conditions of the war and postwar periods. They are, in effect, forecasts of educational attainment under "normal" conditions.

FIG. 3 - EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE POPULATION 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER, FOR THE UNITED STATES, 1940, AND PROJECTIONS FOR 1950 AND 1960



The most interesting changes indicated by these projections relate to the high-school and college levels. In 1940, the median number of years of school completed was 8.6, representing completion of elementary school by more than half the population 25 and over. For 1950, the median is 9.0 years, representing completion of the first year of high school; for 1960, the median is 10.3, representing the second year of high school.

On an age-specific basis, the group 25 to 29 years old in 1960 represents what lies immediately ahead in the way of high-school population, since this group is now 12 to 16 years old and many of them are in high school. For this group the median in 1960 is 12.4 years, meaning that more than half of them will complete high school. Age-specific trends for the two high-school classes, 1 to 3 years completed and 4 years completed, show an accelerating tendency for students to complete 4 years of high school and a countertendency for smaller and smaller proportions to complete 1, 2, or 3 years only. Among persons 30 to 34 years old in 1940 the proportion who completed 1, 2, or 3 years of high school was larger than the proportion who completed 4 years (and no more). For persons 25 to 29 years old in 1960, this relationship is reversed and the proportion who complete 4 years of high school is almost twice the proportion who finish 1, 2, or 3 years. The present era might be called "the era of the high school."

Gains appear likely at the college level. About 7.5 million persons 25 and over had had some college education in 1940. By 1960, the number is shown as nearly 15 million, a gain of 100 percent. There were 3.4 million college graduates 25 years old and over in 1940. For 1960, the number obtained by projection is 6.5 million. For persons 25 to 34, the number was 1.3 million in 1940; the projection for 1960 gives 2.2 million, a gain of almost a million, or about 70 percent.

These statistics are not readily translatable into terms of the number to be expected in school at any particular time, but they do give some measure of potential changes in the size of the school population at various levels over a period of years, on the assumption that past trends will persist. The relationship between enrollment and attainment is not direct and constant, chiefly because of a qualitative factor. It is not only that more people go to school, but also that more of those who go stay in long enough to finish, whether to finish elementary school, or high school, or college. As a result, the median for years of school completed tends to rise faster than the proportion

attending school rises. Besides, attainment at a given time represents attendance in the past rather than at that time.

Since the present projections are submitted as estimates of the normal in 1950 and 1960, it should be possible to evaluate the current educational situation with respect to whether or not we are ahead of the game, so to speak. Data on the educational attainment of persons in the younger ages are available from the sample survey of October 1946. In the lower educational groups, the results for 1946 fit into the hypothetical pattern between 1940 and 1950. At the high-school and college levels, however, the 1946 data suggest that we have probably not yet made up for losses in educational attainment sustained during the war. The number of persons with only high-school education is larger than the forecasts for 1950 and the number of persons with some college education is considerably lower. In view of the fact that the veteran education program was just under way in the fall of 1946, it may be that the 1950 levels will be achieved within the next 4 years, but this will not happen unless a considerable number of those between 20 and 29 years of age who are not now in school return to school.

More than a million veterans were reported as attending school last October and most of these were in college.

Table 3.—*Educational attainment of the population 25 years old and over, for the United States. 1940, and projections for 1950 and 1960*

Years of school completed	Number			Percent		
	1940 [1]	1950	1960	1940	1950	1960
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
All classes	73, 733, 866	85, 975, 000	93, 126, 000	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
COLLEGE:						
4 or more	3, 407, 331	5, 001, 000	6, 603, 000	4. 6	5. 8	7. 1
1 to 3	4, 075, 184	6, 092, 000	8, 269, 000	5. 5	7. 1	8. 9
HIGH SCHOOL:						
4	10, 551, 680	16, 566, 000	23, 036, 000	14. 3	19. 3	24. 7
1 to 3	11, 181, 995	15, 127, 000	17, 989, 000	15. 2	17. 6	19. 3
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL:						
7 and 8	25, 897, 953	26, 290, 000	23, 654, 000	35. 1	30. 6	25. 4
4 to 6	12, 059, 692	11, 312, 000	9, 365, 000	16. 4	13. 1	10. 1
Less than 4	6, 560, 031	5, 587, 000	4, 210, 000	8. 9	6. 5	4. 5

[1] Figures exclude those whose educational attainment was not reported.

There is a large reservoir of veterans who have a high-school education or a partial college education but who were not in school at that time. If substantial numbers of these enter college between now and 1950, it is quite within the range of possibility that the 1950 projections will be a satisfactory picture of the situation at that time. But, so far as we can tell on the basis of the 1946 information, the abnormal veteran load now in the colleges does not represent a potential liquidation of the war deficit.

One peculiar aspect of the 1946 statistics is that the proportion of women 18 to 24 years old who are attending school (probably college) is much lower than it was in 1940. Possible explanations are (1) that "veterans' preference" is crowding some women out of the colleges for the time being; (2) that the recent high marriage and birth rates represent a substitute activity for many women who otherwise would now be in college; and (3) that many young women are still in their wartime jobs.

It may be that by 1950 we shall be able to determine whether or not a net gain in educational attainment has been made. If the wave of veterans in school is still high, we shall not be able to say even then how much of a gain or loss has occurred. By 1960, it is reasonable to expect that "normal" trends will have been resumed. If the GI-education program should result in a net gain, the projections for 1960 will undoubtedly be too low, not only because veterans themselves will have achieved an above-normal amount of education, but also because education compounds itself. People who have a college education want their children to have one, too.

UNESCO and United Nations

Program for 1948

Through students, teachers, and adults, UNESCO will promote education for international understanding, if the program proposed by its executive board is adopted at the Second General Conference to be held in Mexico City in November.

Raising of standards of education through its projects for fundamental education and for educational reconstruction has also been proposed for consideration of the Mexico conference.

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Materials Available

Guide for Lecturers and Teachers, a 165-page, loose-leaf booklet is available from the Section for Lecture Services and Educational Liaison, Department of Public Information, United Nations, Lake Success, New York, N. Y. The booklet is in three parts, concerning: the origin and organization of the United Nations; the work of the organization; and each of nine related organizations.

The report of the United States Delegation at the first session of the General Conference of UNESCO, held in Paris, November 19–December 10, 1946, is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., for 35 cents.

Folding leaflets recently become available from the Department of Public Information of United Nations are: ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization), and UNESCO. Both describe briefly "What It Is * * * What It Does * * * How It Works."

The Department of Public Information also announces that the UN film, "Peoples' Charter," 2 reels, 20 minutes, may be obtained for nontheatrical production from Films of the Nation, Inc., 55 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City.

Two film strips also may be obtained from the Department of Public Information: *The United Nations at Work—The Secretariat*, and *The Economic and Social Council* (*Foundation for Peace*), each 35 mm.

Because of limited supplies of these materials in face of the needs for worldwide distribution, teachers are asked to place their requests through city super-

intendents of schools or other corresponding officials, rather than to order them direct. It is expected that the superintendents will order enough copies for each school where courses on the United Nations are planned.

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UNESCO Announces

UNESCO and You (Publication 2904), prepared by the United States National Commission for UNESCO, may be obtained without charge from the Department of State, according to announcement by that Department.

The title indicates that the purpose of the pamphlet is to present information and suggestions to the individual at the community level. The arrangement of material is that of questions and answers and the selection of material follows in general the requests for information and for plans of action which have been addressed by leaders of organizations to the United States National Commission for UNESCO.

Teacher Examination Program

ARRANGEMENTS are under way by the American Council on Education for the establishment of examining centers for the ninth annual administration of its National Teacher Examinations.

The examining centers are conducted in cooperation with school systems and teacher-education institutions.

Superintendents and boards of education in many localities require teaching applicants to present National Teacher Examination records. The examination results are used as one of the factors in the selection of teachers.

The Teacher Examinations are also administered in connection with teacher education programs in colleges and universities, both at undergraduate and graduate levels. The examination profile is used for student guidance and self-study of strengths and weaknesses in areas measured by tests. The tests are frequently used as comprehensive examinations for undergraduates and as qualifying examinations for graduate students.

Information regarding the project may be obtained from the National Committee on Teacher Examinations, American Council on Education, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York 23, N. Y.

Acts of the Eightieth Congress, 1st Session, Relating to Education

by Ward W. Keesecker, Specialist in School Legislation

LAWS ENACTED by Congress affecting education are of wide interest and concern to people of the United States, and especially to school officials and teachers. The Eightieth Congress, first session, through its respective committees, considered many bills which were introduced relating to education. Most of these bills are still in committees to which they were referred. However, some of them have become law. The following information briefly summarizes those educational measures which were enacted into law.

U. S. Office of Education

Public Law 165, approved July 8, 1947. This is the Appropriation Act for the Department of Labor and the Federal Security Agency. It includes appropriations for the Office of Education as follows:

For the development of vocational education	$17,750,000
"Provided, That the apportionment to the States shall be computed on the basis of not to exceed $19,842,759.97 for the fiscal year 1948."	
For the promotion of vocational education in Hawaii	30,000
For the promotion of vocational education in Puerto Rico	105,000
For further endowment of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts	2,480,000
For salaries and expenses of the U. S. Office of Education	1,633,900

Higher Education

Housing Facilities

Public Law 85, approved May 31, 1947. This act authorized an additional sum of $35,500,000 for "necessary expenses in (1) completing the provision of temporary housing for which a contract in writing with any educational institution, State or political subdivision thereof, local public agency, or nonprofit organization had been made prior to the enactment hereof" pursuant to title V of the act of October 14, 1940, "An act to expedite the provision of housing in connection with national defense," etc., as amended; and "(2) for reimbursing any such educational institution for funds expended by it in completing any such housing, or for the cost of utility and other work in connection with such temporary housing."

United States Naval Postgraduate School

Public Law 302, approved July 31, 1947. Authorized the Secretary of the Navy to acquire 606 acres of land at Monterey, Calif., for the establishment of a Naval Postgraduate School, including the ncessary construction of school facilities.

Public Law 303, approved July 31, 1947. Authorized and directed the Secretary of the Navy to establish the United States Naval Postgraduate School "for the advanced instruction and training of commissioned officers of the regular Navy and Marine Corps and the reserve components thereof in the practical and theoretical duties of commissioned officers." The Secretary of the Navy was also authorized to employ at the Postgraduate School, under the direction of the Superintendent, such professors and instructors as shall be deemed necessary. The Superintendent of the United States Naval Postgraduate School is authorized to confer "bachelor of science, masters, and doctors degrees in engineering and related fields." The Superintendent, pursuant to such regulations as the Secretary of the Navy may prescribe, is authorized, upon its accreditation from time to time by appropriate professional authority of the applicable curriculum of such school leading to bachelor of science, masters, or doctors degrees in engineering or related fields, to confer such de-

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[1] See also *Veterans Education*.

gree or degrees on qualified graduates of such school.

Agricultural Research

Public Law 297, approved July 31, 1947. Amends first sentence of section 11 of title I of the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, as amended by Public Law 733 of the Seventy-Ninth Congress, by striking out the words "authorized to be", after the words "funds", so that said sentence as now amended reads:

SEC. 11. Notwithstanding any other provision of this title, (1) not less than 20 percentum of the funds appropriated under section 9 (a) shall be used by State agricultural experiment stations for conducting marketing research projects approved by the Department of Agriculture, and (2) cooperative research projects provided for under sections 9 (b) (3) and 10 (b) shall be carried out under cooperative agreements between the Secretary of Agriculture and the cooperating agencies and shall include appropriate provisions for preventing duplication or overlapping of work within the State or States cooperating. • • •

Veterans Education

Public Law 76, approved May 26, 1947. Provided, through the Federal Works Agency, a deficiency appropriation of $3,000,000 for the fiscal year 1947 to maintain veterans educational facilities, to be available until expended but not available for new projects after September 30, 1947, of which amount not exceeding $100,000 shall be available for administrative purposes.

Public Law 115, approved June 25, 1947. This act authorized to be appropriated $3,000,000 (in lieu of $1,500,000 formerly authorized) for use by the Veterans' Administration "as a revolving fund for making advancements, not exceeding $100 in any case, to persons commencing or undertaking courses in vocational rehabilitation." Without interest, the advancements are to be reimbursed in such installments as may be determined by the said Administration.

Public Law 338, approved August 4, 1947. This act increased the minimum allowance payable to veterans for rehabilitation in certain service-connected cases.

Public Law 377, approved August 6, 1947. Modified the veterans education program by including and defining "institutional on-farm" training course. Stipulated that such course "shall include any course of instruction approved by the appropriate agency of the State or the Administrator. Such course shall be considered a full-time course when it combines (1) organized group instruction in agricultural and related subjects of at least two hundred hours per year (and of at least eight hours each month) at an educational or training institution, with (2) supervised work experience on a farm or other agricultural establishment. To be approved, such a course shall be developed with due consideration to the size and character of the farm on which the veteran is to receive his supervised work experience and to the need of the veteran, in the type of farming for which he is training, for proficiency in planning, producing, marketing, farm mechanics, conservation of resources, food conservation, farm financing, farm management, and the keeping of farm and home accounts."

Vocational Rehabilitation

Public Law 165, approved July 8, 1947. Contains the appropriation for vocational rehabilitation. The amount appropriated to the States for vocational rehabilitation was increased from $11,747,800 to $18,000,000.

Public Law 338—listed under *Veterans' Education.*

Local School Facilities

Public Law 317, approved August 11, 1947. Extended the period for providing assistance for certain war-incurred school enrollments. In order to enable authorities which are still overburdened with war-incurred school enrollments, this act authorized the Federal Works Administrator to continue to make during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1948, contributions for the operation and maintenance of school facilities to local school agencies requiring assistance that have received during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1947, Federal contributions administered by him for the maintenance and operation of their school facilities. The amount authorized under this act shall not exceed $5,000,000 for the year ending June 30, 1948.

Institute of Inter-American Affairs

Public Law 369, approved August 5, 1947. This act created an agency of the United States of America a body corporate with the name of "The Institute of Inter-American Affairs." "The purposes of this corporation are to further the general welfare of, and to strengthen friendship and understanding among, the peoples of the American Republics through collaboration with other governments and governmental agencies of the American Republics in planning, initialing, assisting, financing, administering, and executing technical programs and projects, especially in the fields of public health, sanitation, agriculture, and education."

The management of the Institute shall be vested in a Board of Directors of not less than five members, each of whom shall be appointed by the Secretary of State.

"The Institute of Inter-American Affairs and the Inter-American Educational Foundation, Inc., two Government corporations caused to be created under the laws of the State of Delaware on March 31, 1942, and September 25, 1943, respectively, by the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, shall, within ten days following the enactment of this Act, transfer to the corporation created by this Act all necessary personnel, the assets, funds, and property—real, personal, and mixed—and all debts, liabilities, obligations, disabilities, and duties," etc.

District of Columbia

Public Law 163, approved July 7, 1947. This act revised the classified salary schedule for teachers in the District of Columbia and provided substantial salary increases for teachers in the various classified schedules.

Public Law 322, approved August 1, 1947. Amended the District of Columbia Rent-Control Law so as to provide that schools and universities may recover possession of housing accommodations where there is a *bona fide* need for the premises for educational research, administrative, or dormitory purposes.

Indian Education

Public Law 137, approved June 30, 1947. Appropriated $88,000 for construction and equipment of a new school building under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior in Moclips-Aloha District, Grays Harbor County, Wash., the same to be available to both Indian and non-Indian children.

Public Law 182, approved July 11, 1947. This act authorized an appropri-

ation of $300,000 for the construction, improvement and equipment of school buildings in Owyhee, Nev., the specifications to be furnished by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs; provided such school buildings shall be turned over to the Owyhee Public School District, and shall be made available to all Indian children of the district on the same terms, except as to payment of tuition, as to other children of the said school district.

Public Law 223, approved July 24, 1947. Authorized an appropriation of $35,000 for cooperating with the public-school board at Walker, Minn., for the extension of public-school facilities to be available to all Indian children in the district.

Public Law 231, approved July 24, 1947. Authorized an appropriation of $213,000 to provide additional funds for cooperation with public-school districts (organized and unorganized) in Mahnomen, Itasca, Pine, Becker, and Cass Counties, Minn., in the construction, improvement, and extension of school facilities to be available to both Indian and white children.

BOOK WEEK

(*From page 15*)

added attraction in the opening of the U. S. Information Library in a new building. The celebration was held at the request of a group of Americans and Turks. Robert College Community School, the American Board Publications Department, and a committee of Turkish women assisted the library staff in arranging a display of book jackets in the lobby and filled the shelves on one side of the library with American and Turkish children's books.

Recently returned from Cape Town, Winifred Linderman gave the following report of the activities with which she was associated:

"Last year, for the first time, Cape Town, Union of South Africa, joined in the international celebration of Book Week. In 1939 the South African Public Library had arranged an independent exhibit of children's books which had proved so successful that it encouraged the School and Children's Library Section of the South African Library Association to undertake last year's exhibit.

"A committee, which started meeting in August, formulated the plans which were presented later at a general meeting of publishers and their representatives, booksellers, and members of the press and broadcasting company. The response was immediate and generous, both in interest and money.

"A large hall in the center of town was rented for the week and a local artist was procured to design colorful wall banners for the central theme "Books are Bridges" and for the exhibit stalls in which the books were arranged by bridges to various subjects. The Mother Goose Bridge was particularly effective as was the one called "Books are Bridges to an Understanding of Other People." For this stall foreign consular officials supplied as many children's books as they could obtain from their countries. Another stall of local interest displayed children's books published in South Africa.

"Since South Africa is a bilingual country, banners and headings were made in English and in Afrikaans and a new heading in Afrikaans was adapted to fit half the posters procured from the States.

AMERICAN children's books were characterized by a Turkish newspaper editor on the occasion of last year's Children's Book Week in Istanbul, Turkey, as follows:

1. There is no book of nonsense. Almost all of them teach something in an amusing way.

2. Almost all of them are printed on thick, dull paper that makes the writing and pictures conspicuous and that is not easily torn.

3. Most of the books have larger dimensions than the children's books we are familiar with. This shape of book is more attractive to the child.

4. Pictures on the covers of the books are in color and drawn by hand.

5. In almost every book 30–40 percent of the contents is devoted to writing and 60–70 percent to pictures.

6. Almost 60 percent of the pictures are colored.

7. Books for smaller children are printed in large letters.

"A small committee visited all the book stores and publishing houses to select a list of good books obtainable in the local bookshops.

"The program for the week consisted of lunch-hour talks by authors of children's books, evening talks for parents and teachers, book talks for older boys and girls and story hours for younger ones.

"The broadcasting company cooperated by arranging several programs discussing the origin of Book Week, describing the exhibits, and reviewing some of the outstanding books. The daily papers gave complete coverage on the exhibit itself and on the program. The interest of Cape Town people was proved by the crowds which visited the hall during the week and by the often repeated questions: 'Why don't you do this every year?' and 'Why don't you arrange a similar exhibit for adults?' "

Book Week plans are being made in Argentina, Canada, and China, as well as in several countries in Europe. In England and Australia, Book Week is a local event, and not necessarily held during November.

The Children's Book Council, 62 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 19, N. Y., has available various materials to help in planning book programs.

National Hearing Week

NATIONAL Hearing Week is a time set aside by the American Hearing Society, endorsed by the President of the United States, the governors of many States, and the mayors of many communities to focus public attention on the hearing problem. The dates set for this year are November 9–15.

It is estimated that some 3,000,000 children have a measurable hearing loss, and that some 300,000 children of school age are either deaf or sufficiently hard of hearing to demand special educational services. It is to promote such services for children and to help prevent a growing hearing defect through prompt attention to early symptoms of even a minor hearing loss that the American Hearing Society carries on its program. Information concerning its activities may be secured by addressing the American Hearing Society, 1537 Thirty-fifth Street NW., Washington 7, D. C.

U. S. Government Announces

Orders for the publications listed on this page should be addressed as follows: Requests for cost publications should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., enclosing remittance (check or money order) at the time of ordering.. Free publications should be ordered directly from the agency issuing them.

New U. S. Office of Education Publications

Better Homes for Negro Farm Families. Prepared jointly by the Agricultural Education Service and the Home Economics Service.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 26 p., illus. 15 cents.

Organized into units; each unit contains suggestions which should assist vocational agriculture and home economics teachers in directing farm families—through all-day, older youth, and adult classes—to ways of providing improved housing conditions.

Inter-American Understanding and the Preparation of Teachers. By Effie G. Bathurst.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 100 p., illus. (Bulletin 1946, No. 15.) 30 cents.

Reports on the activities carried on in 22 experimental or demonstration centers for the in-service and pre-service preparation of teachers for inter-American education. A number of public-school systems, teacher-preparing institutions, State and county education departments cooperated with the U. S. Office of Education in the project.

Guide to Occupational Choice and Training. By Walter J. Greenleaf.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 150 p., illus. (Vocational Division Bulletin No. 236.) 35 cents.

A handbook for counselors who deal with occupational materials. Offers suggestions for locating and assembling occupational data and descriptions, publications about occupations, professional reading, and visual aids. An extensive annotated bibliography, arranged by occupations, is appended.

Education in Ecuador. By Cameron D. Ebaugh.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 92 p., illus. (Bulletin 1947, No. 2.) 25 cents.

One of a series of studies on education in a number of the Central and South American countries undertaken by the U. S. Office of Education in connection with a project sponsored by the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation. The purposes of the study are to promote understanding of education in Ecuador, to facilitate the proposed academic placement in the United States of Ecuadorian students who may wish to enter educational institutions, and to further cooperation in inter-American education.

New Publications of Other Agencies

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

The First Report of the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission to the Security Council.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 101 p. (Publication 2737; The United States and the United Nations Report Series 8.) 25 cents.

This first official report sets forth in the form of findings and recommendations the progress made from June 14 to December 31, 1946. A chronological calendar of meetings and a list of representatives and advisers are appended.

Making the Peace Treaties, 1941–1947.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 150 p. (Publication 2774; European Series 24.) 50 cents.

Subtitle: A history of the making of the peace beginning with the Atlantic Charter, the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences, and culminating in the drafting of peace treaties with Italy, Bulgaria, Hungary, Rumania, and Finland. The appendix includes 15 official statements and reports upon which the discussion is based.

Report by the President to the Congress for the Year 1946.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 221 p. (Publication 2735; The United States and the United Nations Report Series 7.) 45 cents.

Includes a survey of the activities of all of the organs of the United Nations and the participation of the United States therein. Part II contains the Charter and 11 other documents.

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FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY

"A Foster Child Needs His Own Parents." By Almeda R. Jolowicz.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. (In *The Child*, 12: 18–21, August 1947. Published by the Division of Reports, Children's Bureau.) Single copies, 10 cents; annual subscription, $1.

Condensed from paper given at the New York State Conference of Social Welfare, November 1946. Copies of the complete paper may be had by writing to the U. S. Children's Bureau.

Social Security. Prepared by the Social Security Administration.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 24 p. (I. S. C. 1.) Free, from Social Security Administration.

A brief explanation of the Social Security Act, including unemployment insurance, old-age and survivors insurance, public assistance, and children's services under the act.

Teamwork in Community Services, 1941–1946. By Katherine Glover, Information Officer of the Office of Community War Services.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 80 p. Single copies free from the Director of Information, Federal Security Agency.

An account of a demonstration in Federal, State, and local cooperation presented "not merely as a historical record, but also as a significant background for the continuing development of community services."

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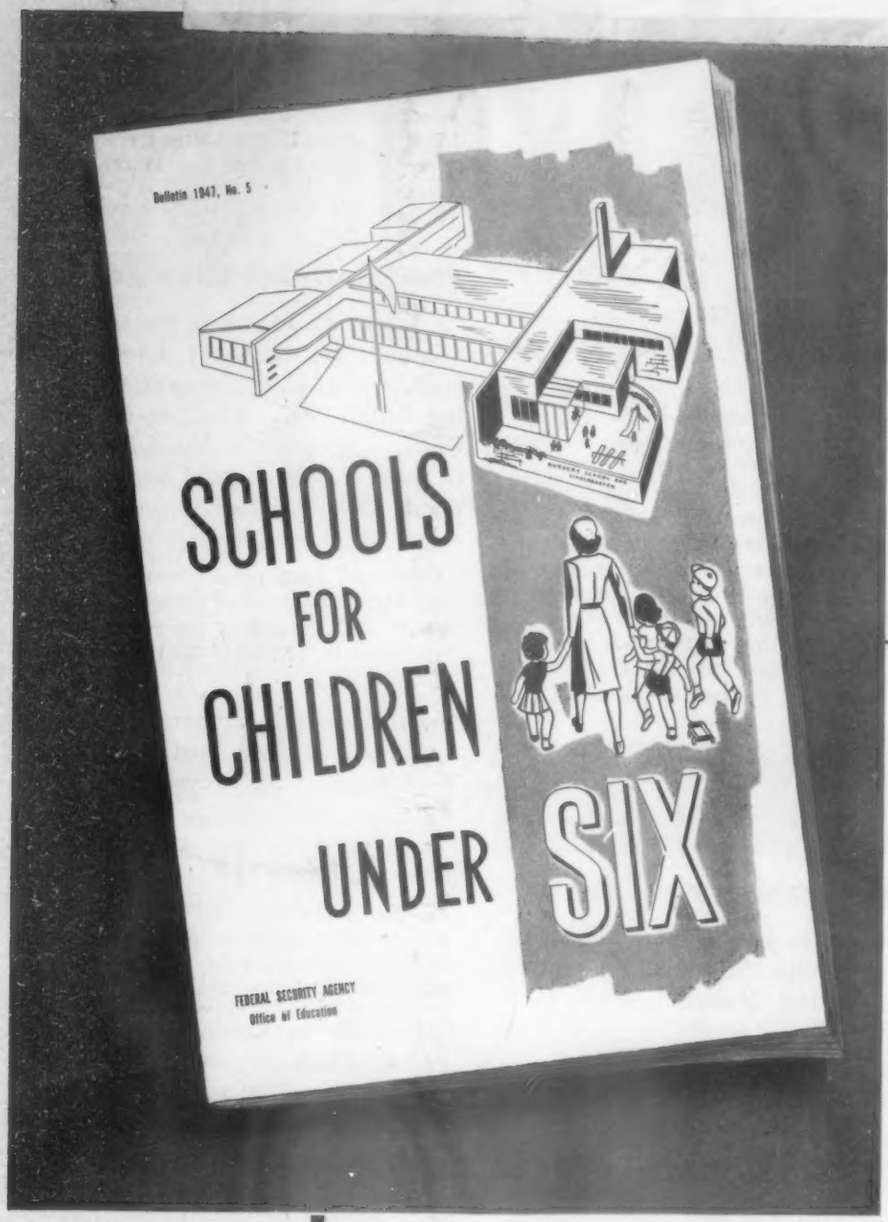
TREASURY DEPARTMENT

Budgeting for Security, a School Savings Bulletin. Published by the Education Section, U. S. Savings Bonds Division.
Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947. 24 p. Free, from State Savings Bonds Offices.

The study unit, which is for grades 6–12, is organized under the headings: (1) "Budgeting for Security," (2) "Lessons in Budgeting," and (3) "Preparing the Family Budget."



A Report of Continuing Progress

THIS BULLETIN, just issued, reports recent progress in kindergartens and nursery schools. It shows the growing acceptance of these schools as the initial unit of primary education and as a part of the program of public education. In its 58 pages it presents statistics of child population and enrollment, names types of schools and tells how they are organized and operated. Illustrated. Order your copy today.

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